

The Nation.

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The Week.

THE price of gold fell during the week to 100g; in other words, the legal-tender notes of the United States advanced to \$0.99625. There were two reasons for this. The first was, that the gold payments of July interest swelled the stock of gold in the market at a time when there was no increased demand for it; and the second was, the semi-official announcement by the Treasury that it will soon begin to pay out gold on ordinary currency obligations, the paper-currency balance of the Treasury being small. The foreign exchanges are favorable for such an experiment by the Treasury, the rate for bills on London being now nearer to the point at which gold coin can be imported than to the point at which it can be exported. Very soon, too, bankers will begin to anticipate cotton exports by drawing sixty-day bills, to be covered when the cotton arrives; so that the Secretary has most favorable conditions for taking the step contemplated. The United States Treasurer, on the 6th inst., issued a statement which shows that the coin balance of the Treasury was \$180,222,502; that if 35 per cent. reserve is sufficient to keep the legal-tender note circulation at par with gold, the Treasury has \$59,222,502 in excess of that amount; and that, making every deduction for interest due and unpaid, coin certificates, called bonds, etc., the excess of coin reserve above 35 per cent. of the \$346,618,016 legal-tender notes is already \$2,474,822. The new silver dollars have not yet begun to have any practical effect on the Treasury finances, but most certainly will so soon as there are enough issued for use in payment of import duties. Silver in London has fallen to 52½d. per ounce, and closes at 52½d.; and the bullion value of the new dollar at the close was only \$0.8855. Whenever there are enough of these dollars for use, they will become the practical unit of value, and their gold value will be the par of every coin obligation in the country. Unless silver bullion before that time advances to 59d. to 60d. per ounce, it is inevitable that we shall have currency troubles in comparison with which those that we have had will appear simple and easy of adjustment.

Emil L. Weber, a brother of Don Weber, Anderson's partner in the negotiations with the Visiting Statesmen, has testified before the Potter Committee in an interesting if not in a credible manner. He "entered actively" into Louisiana politics ten years ago, and at the time of the last Presidential count he had "free access to the rooms of the Republican Visiting Statesmen, and to the rooms of conference and caucus occupied by Packard, Kellogg, and the members of the Returning Board and the Custom-house officials, and was used more than once by the Statesmen as a messenger to secure interviews" with his brother and Anderson, in order to induce them to file a protest against the election returns from East and West Feliciana. They were at first unwilling to do so because the elections there had been peaceful, and because it had been the policy of the Republican managers to let these parishes go by default in order to throw them out on a fictitious protest. He was present when the several affidavits were prepared and signed, and here he corroborated Anderson's testimony. He had Sherman's verbal assurance that his brother would be protected and provided for, and afterwards his brother showed him the famous letter containing this guarantee, in Sherman's handwriting, and reported he had received it direct from the writer. On the 8th of March following, D. A. Weber was murdered for having threatened to publish a list of defaulting tax-payers. A letter written by the witness at the time to a cousin, strongly declaring the murder to have been purely political, having been

produced by Mr. Cox, the witness said that "the statements were made for political effect"; he supposed the letter would be published by the person to whom it was addressed, and "would create a feeling in the North in favor of the Packard government," he himself being then a senator under that government. Among his brother's papers he came upon the Sherman letter, and destroyed it in the summer of 1877, at which time Mrs. Jenks was very anxious to obtain it. Weber's testimony was mainly read from a statement already prepared.

Weber's "perjury"—for no one can doubt that he has been indulging freely in that crime—has shocked the Republican press to an extraordinary degree, which is a gratifying proof of their own purity and innocence; but it does not say much for their worldly experience, for it shows plainly that they think Weber, like Anderson and the rest of them, was a good and strictly truthful man in 1876, when he was aiding in Hayes's election and writing letters about "outrages" for Northern consumption, and conclude that he has suddenly fallen from grace and plunged into all manner of wickedness. But we must warn these simple-minded brethren that this is a very improbable view. All experience of human nature warrants the belief that Weber, Jenks, Anderson, McLin, and Dennis were all as sinful and corrupt two years ago as they are to-day; the only difference between their spiritual condition now and their spiritual condition then is that they looked for their reward at that time in a different quarter. Other Republican papers seek consolation, too, for the Louisiana depravity in the reflection that Louisiana always was a corrupt State—witness the Plaquemine frauds forty years ago. But here again we must remind the brethren that this fact was also well known in 1876, and that the knowledge of it ought to have made the Visiting Statesmen very cautious in their intercourse with the local politicians, and have prevented them also from writing eulogies on them as Mr. Sherman did.

On the Fourth the Greenbackers had a "grand rally" in Newburyport, Massachusetts, at which General Butler made a speech on the questions of the day, and he announced the platform on which he means to stand for the next three or four months. He is in favor of issuing \$400,000,000 non-interest-bearing notes of the United States, to settle the unemployed laboring man upon the public lands. This, he says, will do no harm to any one, because, as long as they draw no interest, they are no burden upon the masses. He enquired at length into the evils which now beset the country, and promised to tell his audience "more truth" than they would hear "on another Fourth of July within a generation." What is the reason there is so much poverty and distress when we are surrounded by abundance on every side? It is clearly not the want of railroads and cheap transportation, nor over-production. The trouble, the General pointed out, was *under-consumption*, and "under-consumption is when men cannot get those necessities of life which they ought to consume." The enterprise of the country is all stopped, because, in the present condition of the finances, "it is better and more for the profit of the capitalists to put their money into bonds of the United States, which are not taxable, than it is to employ it in enterprises, and therefore all enterprises cease." At the beginning of the war the Government had to have money, and consequently it issued paper. This went down because our credit was doubtful, and because the "money kings," who, it seems, had then the control, put into this war measure two provisions, "both of which made that grand old man, Thaddeus Stevens, shed tears as he came away from the conference room of the Conference Committee." The first provision which caused his tears to flow was that this money "should not be received by everybody for everything"; the second, that "it might be funded in six per cent. gold-bearing bonds, and bought up at thirty cents

in gold-bearing bonds at 100 cents on the dollar." That was the beginning of the trouble. No wonder, the General says, that laws of this sort have produced misery. He does not complain of individuals, but of the system; and he points out to the workmen of Massachusetts that they must not think of violence or disorders, but must unite in a law-abiding manner to change the laws. The meeting does not seem to have been a great success; but the speech appears to be generally taken as a bid for the Governorship from what General Butler believes to be the party of the future.

A correspondent calls our attention to the fact that we did Mr. Groesbeck injustice in classing him with the paper inflationists. He has really gone no further in that direction than in supporting the silver movement, and did, in his address before the Bankers' Association in this city in September of last year, which we had overlooked, take strong ground against irredeemable paper, and we presume holds the same position still.

The Alabama Republicans held a convention on the Fourth. They refused to adopt a resolution endorsing the Administration, and nominated no State ticket. A correspondent of the Cincinnati *Gazette* gives a frightful picture of the Democratic misrule in Alabama. He says that when in 1870 the Democrats, by "force and fraud," got possession of the State government the people of all classes were rapidly recovering from the war; property was increasing in value; immigration was pouring in; internal improvements were going forward in a flourishing manner; railroads were constructing in every part of the State; owing to the "wise and judicious" management of the Republican administration the credit of the State was good and its bonds were "eagerly sought." But in 1870 the Democrats came into power. What was the result? These madmen at once began an assault on all the sources of the prosperity of the State; they began "a furious war" upon the railroads, and in the short space of two years they had involved the State in litigation to the extent of hundreds of thousands of dollars; had destroyed its good name abroad, caused its bonds to depreciate 50 per cent., and "squandered the taxes of the people in paying lawyers' fees." In 1872 the Republicans succeeded in stopping them for a moment in their wild career by carrying the State ticket; and in 1873-74 succeeded "to a very great extent in undoing the mischief of their predecessors." But by a series of crimes, which the correspondent shrinks from describing, the State was again lost; and now mark the result! The debt is repudiated; the blacks are not allowed to vote; white Republicans are ostracized, and Alabama, with four of her eight Congressional districts fairly Republican, returns to Congress eight Democrats. This, we are free to admit, is a blood-curdling tale. There could not be a stronger proof of the political insanity of the Southerners than this. Credit, immigration, education, prosperity, freedom, all are nothing to them compared with Congressmen. This is a state of feeling unknown in any Northern community.

Mr. Charles Foster, of Ohio, in a speech just published, has undertaken to show that the Democratic pretensions to having reduced the expenditures of the Government are a sham. The Democrats, he says, asserted that they had made a reduction of \$30,000,000 over 1876 for 1877 and 1878—in all \$60,000,000; whereas, according to Mr. Foster, the actual reduction for these two years was \$24,000,000, a difference of \$36,000,000. He shows this by figures which we cannot go into, but which seem plausible. The subject of the reduction of expenditures by the two parties is one of those mysteries of State and national politics which it requires a carefully-trained "arithmetical man" to unravel. There was the same sort of conflict of veracity between the two parties at the last election in this State for governor, when the Democrats showed that they were paying off the State debt, and the Republicans showed that they were paying it off because the Republican honesty and economy of a previous administration had made it possible. It is a good sign when parties begin to engage in a struggle of this sort, and we are glad to ob-

serve that the politicians, while differing among themselves as to the facts to the extent of several millions, are all agreed on one point—that "the people" will ascertain who are the real and who are the sham reformers, and will reward the former and punish the latter.

The fall campaign in this city has been begun already by the organization of a great anti-Tammany movement, with a general committee of twelve hundred and all the appliances of an active canvass. Never before, we suppose, since the Tweed times have the respectable and quiet portion of the inhabitants of New York been so utterly at a loss to know what party or faction it is for their interest to support—and this, too, on the eve of elections which in their results are likely to be of far-reaching importance. Between the regular politicians of "Tammany" and "anti-Tammany" there is not, perhaps, a great deal to choose. The committee of twelve hundred will not be a band of saints, any more than John Kelly's committee will be. On the other hand, some of the best Democrats appear to be closely connected with the leadership of anti-Tammany, while there is no question that Kelly's long hold of power has begun to have its usual effect, and to unfit him for the responsible exercise of it. His faction has, too, evidently made a bargain with the Republicans for the control of the Assembly. How this bargain is to be carried out it is difficult to see, inasmuch as it involves the transfer of a number of city assembly districts to the Republicans. This might be easily done if the anti-Tammany movement were a sham got up to let in the Republican candidates; but this it is clearly not. Then, a mysterious political force has made its appearance in the shape of a Morgan movement, said to be supported by George Bliss and Collector Arthur, the next friends of Mr. Conkling. Besides all this, there are the new parties, the "Nationals" and the Communists, and so on, the effect of whose action it is quite impossible to predict. Altogether, there never was a time in which there was more confusion and obscurity, or in which it would probably be easier for any party which really identified itself with the cause of reform in city government to carry the county ticket. The disgraceful position into which Kelly has got himself will no doubt give anti-Tammany this year an unusual chance, and strengthen the popularity which it always seems to have in certain quarters as the unbought and unpurchasable defender of the people's rights against "Bosses" and the "One-Man power."

There is, it is said, a queer outbreak of Communism in the Western States, in the form of an attack by gangs of discontented persons on labor-saving machinery. In some cases reapers and mowers have been seized in the fields and destroyed; in others the barns and haystacks of farmers who use mowers and reapers have been burned down. The Chicago *Tribune* recommends the farmers to use violent measures in retaliation, and reads the tramps a rather useless lecture on the folly of their proceedings; it is an error to suppose that gangs of tramps engaged in burning and destroying property read editorial articles on the subject of the division of labor. We beg, moreover, to point out to the Chicago *Tribune* that the persons who are mainly responsible for any outbreaks of Communism in the West now are those who fostered the Granger delusion before the panic, and taught the Western public to believe that there was no relation between supply and demand, or cost and prices. It is instructive to read in the Chicago *Tribune* such a paragraph as this:

"As every mile of railroad built through agricultural districts enables farmers to produce something more than they consume, by affording them a means of transporting their surplus to such points where it may be needed, so the labor-saving machinery on farms enables the farmer to produce more grain to sell than he could otherwise do; and, between the railroad and the reaper, there are twenty bushels of grain produced and taken to market to the one that could possibly be produced and delivered without them."

This is very true; but it was true six years ago, when the Chicago *Tribune* was echoing the demand of the farmers that they should fix the charges of transportation at such a figure as would yield them a profit in sales of wheat, no matter whether it ruined property in-

vested in railroads or not. The same blind desire to make up for one's own losses by getting the better of somebody else that was at the bottom of the Granger movement, is also at the bottom of the anti-labor-saving movement.

The last mails bring abundant expression of the anger of the Tories over the agreement with Russia published by the *Globe*, and it was intensified by the defences put forward by Lord Beaconsfield's closer adherents. They said that the agreement was obtained for publication surreptitiously; that there was no knowing what other agreements he had made with other Powers—Austria, for instance—which would neutralize the effects of this one; that anyhow he had not played his last card, and that the full power of his magnificent intellect had still to be seen—which was, under the circumstances, another way of saying that he had no end of similar tricks still in store. The affair was rendered all the more mortifying to the "Jingo" by the fact that their principal charge against Russia has been that she was underhand in her dealings, and was trying to settle affairs of European interest without the knowledge or participation of Europe; and now here was their hero and champion convicted of having joined with her in being underhand, and of having agreed with her secretly and apart from Europe to help her in carrying out her original designs. In fact, the Beaconsfield-Salisbury defence of "the public law of Europe" closely resembles the course of the Cornish minister who, when the news of the wreck reached the church during service, called on the congregation not to leave their places till he got down from the pulpit, so that all might start fair.

The worst feature in the case is acknowledged on all hands to be the abandonment of the Rumanians in the matter of Bessarabia. The seizure of that is from every point of view indefensible. It does not belong to the Turks, or to an ally of the Turks, but to a people from whom the Russians received invaluable aid against the Turks during the war. It contains no oppressed population of any faith or nationality. It belongs to Rumania under "the public law of Europe," solemnly settled in the Congress of 1856. Its transfer is therefore the one act of Russia which more than any other the Beaconsfield Ministry were bound by the terms of their own gospel to resist to the last. They, however, actually secretly agreed before the Congress met not to oppose it. Earl Grey comments on this in the language of honest wrath in a letter to the *London Times*, which opens with what is substantially a charge of deceit against Lord Salisbury for his mode of answering an enquiry about the Memorandum when the first version of it appeared in the *Globe*. He said the statement (of its substance) which had appeared in the *Globe* was "wholly unauthenticated and not deserving the confidence of their Lordships' House," and this in reply to the question "whether there was any truth" in the statement. Lord Salisbury's position in "the Asian mystery" continues to excite increasing surprise on the part of his friends, particularly as he has been relegated at Berlin to mere office-work, while his chief figures as the star of the Congress.

The "last card" has now made its appearance in the form of a secretly-concluded alliance with Turkey, by which, in return for the cession of the island of Cyprus, Great Britain agrees to defend the Sultan in the possession of what remains of his Asiatic dominions. The reason assigned for this is that the recent conquests of Russia in Asia, combined with the general results of the war, will diffuse through the Asiatic world the belief that Russia is to be the heir of Turkey, and that it is necessary for the safety of British interests in that quarter of the globe to counteract this impression by some striking demonstration of British determination to resist any further Russian advance. Cyprus, which is only about forty miles from the mainland, commands the entrance to the Euphrates Valley, at the seizure of which, the Tories have been maintaining, Russia has all along been aiming, and in which they dream of some day seeing a railway leading down to the

Persian Gulf, and thus shortening the communication with India. It would appear that the nominal title to Cyprus is still to remain in the Porte, but the island is to be governed by a British administrator: Sir Garnet Wolsley, who is an ardent admirer of the Beaconsfield policy, being selected to fill the place for the present. The event is a happy one for the people of the island, and the treaty is to be welcomed as putting an end to the pretence of high moral aims on the part of the British Ministry.

Our correspondent writing from Egypt, in the letter published last week, threw some useful light on the military value of Lord Beaconsfield's stroke of calling on the Indian troops. He showed that it took two months to bring 7,000 men of all arms to Malta, and cost \$3,750,000, nearly. This would make the expense of bringing 100,000 men about \$50,000,000, and they would probably nearly all disappear in one Bulgarian campaign. Additional figures since published show that it took 28 ships, sailing and steam, to bring them, so that 100,000 would need a fleet of about 400 ships. It must be admitted that, as a piece of imposture perpetrated on the British public, the stroke has been very successful; but if it in any way frightened the Russians, their staff must be in a far worse condition than even their enemies have supposed.

The Henley regatta came off on the 4th and 5th insts., resulting in a great victory for Columbia in the race for the Visitor's Cup in the remarkably good time of 8m. 41s. The Steward's Cup was won by the London Rowing Club, the "crack" amateur English Club, in 8m. 26s. The length of the course is one mile and five-sixteenths. The result of the race, when taken together with the victory of the Beaverwycks at Philadelphia in 1876, shows the enormous advance that athletic sports have made in this country since the war, and proves that we now have no reason to suppose that American rowing is not entirely on a level with what has hitherto been the best in the world. The Columbia four were a very strong crew, and they were all in the eight which were beaten last year by Harvard—a fact which furnishes a still further means of comparison between English and American rowing. The Michigan crew, the "Shoe-wae-cae-mettes," came very near winning the Steward's Cup, but were obliged to stop rowing owing to the illness of one of the men. This crew has attracted an enormous amount of attention on account of their light weight, their rapid, short stroke (going up to the unheard-of point of fifty to the minute), their disregard of all rules of training, their want of "form," and their recent unexpected victory on American waters. So far as this crew was concerned, the race was a trial between sheer barbaric pluck and the civilized traditions of athletic sports. In this way their defeat may be almost a source of satisfaction. In a thoroughly trained crew it would have been possible for one of the men to have had an attack of diarrhoea, but the danger of it would have been reduced to a minimum, and it would have been quite out of the question for him to have concealed his illness from his comrades.

The Woman's Suffrage Bill has once more been brought before the British House of Commons, this time by Mr. Leonard Courtney, who, in his speech moving the second reading, acknowledged that the tide of public opinion was running against the measure, and that some of its most valuable friends in the House had deserted it. He repeated the old arguments and predictions in their regular order, was listened to languidly and replied to feebly by second-rate speakers, and then beaten by a vote of 219 to 140, his supporters being all present, and the rest of the House taking little interest in the matter. The main obstacle to the change all admitted was the indifference or hostility of the women themselves; and what makes this indifference or hostility serious, if not fatal, is that it is accompanied by increasing zeal in the cause of female education and in the work of widening women's sphere of occupation. In other words, there is no general belief current among the sex in the elevating power of the ballot, though much importance is attached to elevation.

THE PRESENT DUTY OF SILVER AGITATORS.

SILVER has fallen two and a half pence per ounce in the London market since the passage of the Remonetization Act, which we were assured would restore it to its old price of 1873, and the probabilities are that it will fall still further, thus rendering the difficulties of a double standard still greater than they were, or were expected to be when the agitation began, and making the task of inducing the European gold-foxes to cut off their tails, with which our Commissioners are charged, increasingly arduous. In fact, the failure of the Conference appears, if not altogether certain, almost certain. Moreover, it has been all but demonstrated that there is no popular demand as yet for the new silver coin for general use. The Government has bound itself to accept it in payment of its dues, and all that it issues is at once returned to it and is now accumulating rapidly in the Treasury, and it must be remembered that whatever the Government receives in this way it receives in place of gold, so that the process of the displacement of gold by silver in the Treasury has already begun. The proposition so clamorously maintained by the silver-men that there existed on the part of the people of this country a sentimental attachment to the silver dollar as the money of their fathers, that they passionately desired it, and thought that they had been cheated in having it struck from the list of legal-tender coins, has, in fact, been demolished within six months of the passage of the act. The feeling of the American people about money of every description, including coins, is in truth the feeling of all rational commercial communities—that is, the feeling they have about machinery. They are no more attached to the silver dollar because their fathers used it than they are attached to the scythe or the sickle because their fathers used it, and would think it very silly of anybody to come to them with tears in his eyes and conjure them to adopt it in place of the mowing-machine. So that when the silver dollar makes its appearance in business they apply to it the tests which they apply to every other instrument of production; that is, they consider whether it is the cheapest and most efficient instrument to which they can resort.

Silver is not a convenient instrument in as busy and active a community as this is, and therefore nobody calls for it except those who can make a prompt profit by sending it back into the Treasury. If it be asked how this state of facts is to be reconciled with the undeniable popular demand for its remonetization last winter, we can only say that the answer to this is to be found in a very interesting, but as yet imperfectly-studied, field, which may be called the psychology of politics. The silver question is by no means the only curious question in this field. If it were proposed to any individual American of average intelligence and shrewdness—say Governor Rice, of Massachusetts—to conduct his own business on the plan, in the matter of employing servants, on which the Government business has been conducted during the last forty years, he would feel that you were making fun of him; but, nevertheless, he is fully persuaded that there is something mysterious and undefinable in a “republic” or a “people” which makes it perfectly proper to carry on its vast and complicated affairs in that very way—i. e., in disregard of well-known principles of human nature. The silver agitation, like the greenback agitation, owed its strength largely to each person's confidence in his own smartness and in the gullibility of his neighbors; that is, each silver-man and inflationist would probably admit privately that his plans would not work well permanently, but he thought that they would raise prices, so that he would get rid of his wares at a profit before other people had time to “mark up” theirs. In other words, his imagination was just powerful enough to picture himself in the capacity of a seller, but not powerful enough to picture himself also in the capacity of a buyer. All the late attempts to tinker the currency have, in fact, been plans for “unloading” on an unknown portion of the community, who were supposed to be bereft of shrewdness and very ready to buy, but whose exact whereabouts was never revealed. What is most curious about this delusion is that the shrewdest managers of their own affairs are not always exempt from it.

The notion that our remonetization would raise the price of silver bullion, and that a double standard would find support in this country in a popular liking for silver coin, having thus fortunately been exploded in the very first days of the experiment, it only remains to ask what prospect is now opened up to us. The situation is of course changing from day to day, and will continue to change during the winter. What are we then to look for, the price of silver bullion continuing as low as it is, or not rising much higher than it is? The probabilities seem to be that the steady return of the new coins to the Treasury in place of gold—we are now stripping the matter of all details and technicalities—will after a while compel the Secretary in self-defence to use some of his silver in payment of the public liabilities; or, in other words, to treat it as equally valuable with gold, and pay the interest on the public debt with it, and perhaps “resume” in it to some extent—that is, redeem greenbacks in it. As soon as he does this the *débâcle* will have commenced. The greenbacks having lost, or seeming likely to lose, their gold backing, they would begin to approximate more or less rapidly to the value of the thing in which they were likely to be paid; or, in other words, the premium on gold would rise, and it would begin to leave the country, and we should gradually settle down on one silver standard, with greenbacks and certificates redeemable in silver.

We do not say this will certainly happen, for we have still the hope that when Congress meets in December the “silver craze” will have so completely passed away that the coin will be dropped quietly and unostentatiously from the list of legal tenders. But the probabilities are now so strong and plain that this is the course things will take, that it is the bounden duty of those who were foremost in advancing the silver legislation, and in uttering the predictions on which it was based, to take the subject up once more and point out some mode of avoiding the dangers with which the failure of their expectations threaten us. Mr. Halstead and Mr. Medill, for instance, to whom the silver movement owed so much of its virulent activity, ought to come back to the subject once more; it would bear twenty articles a day now for the sixteen which the former of these gentlemen at one time devoted to it. It cannot now, however, be treated properly without some remarks on the folly and mischief of discussing a financial question with passion, and proposing to change the standard of value in a commercial community with a torrent of vituperation. Nor can these writers and their like follow the too-prevalent practice of ignoring their own errors, and surveying the ruin they have wrought with the eyes of curious spectators. Politicians are great adepts in these modes of escape from the proper penalties of their folly and dishonesty. It ought not to be open to respectable journalists. Public morality as well as self-respect calls for at their hands either a confession of their errors or a modest retirement to Europe until their unhappy dupes have recovered from their disasters, and we have little doubt that the editors we have named will do whatever the proprieties of the occasion require.

LORD BEACONSFIELD'S “LAST CARD.”

IT has been rumored in London ever since it began to seem probable that England and Russia would come to terms, and that the Congress would meet that the Government was preparing for some kind of protectorate of Asiatic Turkey as a set-off to the Russian acquisitions on the side of Armenia; and, sure enough, the project made its appearance in terms in the secret Memorandum concluded between Lord Salisbury and Count Shuvaloff. It now appears that, as soon as the British Ministry had concluded one secret and separate agreement with Russia, which they intended to be concealed not only from their own Parliament but from the Congress, they also immediately concluded another with Turkey, by which they obtained from her the cession of the island of Cyprus, in return for an alliance by which England guarantees the Sultan the possession of his remaining dominions. The announcement of this last agreement is said to have filled the Conservatives in London with great exultation, and to have been received by them as full

compensation for the disappointment caused by the secret agreement with Russia. To the rest of the world, and particularly to that portion of it which cares for England's position as a moral influence, it will, of course, seem simply an aggravation of the hypocrisy and deceit which marked the earlier stages of the controversy with Russia. As we pointed out last week, the cause of this controversy which was put forward after Lord Derby's retirement from the Cabinet, was the attempt of Russia to settle the fate of Turkey, or, indeed, to regulate her relations with Turkey and the condition of the Christian population, separate and apart from the other signatories of the Treaty of Paris. The working of the Treaty of San Stefano was, in fact, pronounced objectionable mainly because it was a violation of "the public law of Europe" and made the influence of one Power over Turkey paramount, to the exclusion of the proper and legitimate influence of the others. It seems scarcely credible, but is nevertheless true, that not only Lord Beaconsfield, from whom neither shame nor scruple on such a point was to be expected, but Lord Salisbury, while in the very act of preaching this gospel, signed on the 30th of May a secret agreement with Russia, settling between themselves the most important points in the Eastern Question, and depriving Turkey, without her knowledge, of nearly the whole of her European territory a fortnight before the Congress met. They then turned round and, five days later, concluded a secret treaty with Turkey, without the knowledge of Russia or any other Power, taking Turkey's most important island in the Mediterranean, and making her virtually the vassal of England as regards her Asiatic possessions. So that Lord Beaconsfield actually appeared at the Congress as the defender of the "public law of Europe" with two secret treaties in his pocket, by one of which he conspired with Russia to deprive Turkey of her territory in Europe, and by the other of which he conspired with Turkey to withdraw her completely from the influence of every Power but England. What is worse still, his followers, who were cast down by the discovery of his first trick, have produced the second as an atonement for it, and chuckle over it as his last and greatest card. We do not think it any exaggeration to say that, tortuous and dark as the ways of despotic diplomacy are said to be, nothing can be produced from them within the present century quite equal in duplicity to this performance of the representative of a constitutional government acting under responsibility to a Parliament and under the criticism of a free press. Probably very few persons expected anything better from Lord Beaconsfield, but Lord Salisbury's share in it has excited much reasonable astonishment. His chief's career, happily for the cause of public morality, is near its close, and if he retires from political life with a dukedom all denunciations of his character will disturb him but little; Lord Salisbury is still, however, in the flower of his years, and has been born and bred under influences which ought to make the good opinion of the Anglo-Saxon world dear to him.

The illustration which the Treaty with Turkey affords of the condition of Tory morals is, however, but a small part of its title to attention. It involves the virtual annexation of a vast territory, containing, even in its present desolate condition, over 15,000,000 of population, to Great Britain, without the knowledge or consent of Parliament. That is to say, it is impossible for England to guarantee to the Sultan the possession of his Asiatic dominions without becoming responsible for the condition of his Christian subjects at least, which in that part of the world number fully 5,000,000. But in point of fact she will become responsible for the security of all classes of the population. She cannot permit the pashas to govern as they govern now, and at the same time stand ready to prevent any other Power from interfering with them or chastising them. She will be compelled, as she has been compelled in India, to see to it that the Sultan, as her dependent, collects his taxes fairly, spends them decently, and provides proper courts and an efficient police. She puts him by the treaty, in fact, in the position of one of the dependent Indian princes, and the change will unquestionably be a good one both for him and for the unhappy people who live under his sway. But it must be, and is in practice,

an extension of the Empire, involving a vast increase of responsibilities and duties, and increased danger of complications in foreign politics. It brings England into very delicate relations, not only with Russia, which will be constantly exposed to differences with Turkey, owing to the barbarous character of the Mussulman population along the Sultan's eastern frontier, but with every Power which has interests or seeks influence in the Levant, including Austria, France, and Italy. The protectorate is, in fact, a far more serious undertaking than the annexation of Egypt would have been, and contains a far greater number of disagreeable possibilities, and is much more likely to call for the expenditure of English blood and treasure. And yet Parliament has had no more to say about it than the Prussian Landtag, and what is more, the prevailing Tory view, and the view which is said to find most favor at Court, is that this independence of the Executive on foreign questions is a useful and desirable feature in the Government. The attractiveness of the scheme to military men is easily understood. Protection of Turkey means more troops, more military and more civil administrators; or, in other words, a great widening in the field of employment for young men of the upper and middle classes. It means, too, the restoration of a good deal of the military éclat with which Great Britain came out of the Napoleonic wars; but it also means increase of taxation, and increased indifference to, and readiness to evade, home questions. It is, therefore, not at all unlikely to bring about a reaction in the direction of radicalism which will make Mr. Gladstone's reforms seem mild and harmless, and perhaps make a Tory government impossible for a generation or two.

Correspondence.

THE BREAKDOWN OF SUFFRAGE IN THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your article in yesterday's *Nation* on the recent act of Congress establishing a "permanent government for the District of Columbia" occasions grave reflection. In your judgment it "is an interesting illustration of the way in which—small though the progress may seem at times—practical common sense gradually gets the better of 'high-priori' theories of government." The "high-priori" theories are the American ideas of government by the people: the "practical common sense," the older antagonistic notions that men shall be governed by others, notably practised upon in our time by the Napoleons. The "progress" of this "common sense," moderately called small, is the extinction of the rudiments of self-government and the substitution of "arbitrary rulers." "Under the bill [law] not a vestige is left of popular municipal government"; and the thoughtful people of the capital, after four years of commissarial government, are truly represented by you as protesting against a return to the smallest exercise of a particle of political power; and all this among a people of exceptional intelligence, forming the population of the capital of the great Republic—a people created by, and for seventy-five years under, the immediate care and discipline of the American Congress, and which may be regarded as the logical product of American institutions. The "progress" is in excess of "small." It certainly ought to be cheering to the Bismarcks, Gortchakoffs, the junior Napoleons, and other professors of "common sense."

Indulge me in a word on the recent government of the District, which you seem to regard as one of the "high-priori" theories from which the people gladly fled to the sanctuary of despotism. The President and Senate appointed its governor, who had a negative on the District Legislature. Of that body, the Upper House was appointive by the President and Senate, as were also the Board of Public Works, the Board of Health, the Board of Police, and justices of the peace, while every other subordinate officer, including trustees of schools and constables, was appointed by the President and his governor. The various boards were under no responsibility to the District government, while the autocratic Board of Public Works was, practically, responsible to nobody. The people could elect the members of the House of Delegates, and, save this, could do no other act. This House could, at the utmost, negative the Upper

House and governor. Practically, it could not do that. With the limitless power of the Board of Public Works, and the army of voting laborers at its command, under the fatal facility of the election laws, nothing was found easier than to fill the House of Delegates with the creatures of the Board. That this government utterly failed and at the end of three years was sponged from the national blackboard, is hardly chargeable to the people of the District. That they turn from it with loathing to the quiet and safety of absolutism need produce no surprise.

No American people will long remain quiet under such a government as, under Congress, now controls the District. At the best it must be temporary. Its continuance will depend largely on the individual excellence of the men entrusted with its administration, and the strength and vitality of American notions of human rights. The scheme was a temporary expedient, devised by Congress in a moment of disgust at the failure of its former project. In the hands of the exceptionably able men to whom it was entrusted it grew into national and local favor. One of these the President has wisely retained. If the scheme had now fallen into bad hands the next session of Congress would repeal it.

Meantime, if "common sense" is to continue its progress, here at the capital is a good national seminary for its diffusion. In this training-school of place-seekers, suppliants, and sycophants, no youth can ever reach virile manhood or graduate to full citizenship. From the capital it can be extended to the States with beneficial results. Wherever a people are weary of caring for themselves there are always in reserve Cæsars and Napoleons ready to take them off their own hands. R.

WASHINGTON, June 23.

[What we mean by the "high-priori" theory of government is the theory which forms the basis of the political art as practised by the managers of both parties during the last forty years—that the end of government is not security for the fruits of men's industry and for the free play of their faculties, but the frequent election of officers for short terms. According to this theory, the quality of a government depends not on the degree of peace of mind enjoyed under it by the frugal, industrious, and enterprising, but on the number of persons who vote for the officers, so that there might be a good government under which everybody was stripped of his savings and under which thieves and murderers went free. This result was actually worked out at the South under the Carpet-bag governments, and the people are threatened with it in most of our large cities. That it has not shown itself by this time all over the country is due simply to the fact that in the country districts at the North the bulk of the voters own something, and are trying to own more, and are intelligent and prudent people. What has happened in Washington is gratifying, not because government by appointed commission is a good form of municipal government, but because the resort to it in such a conspicuous case shows that the old determination not to be sacrificed to a theory, and not to allow government to be converted into an end in itself, which has given the Anglo-Saxon race its political success and pre-eminence, still lives among us. That it is a permanent expedient we do not believe; but it is a sign that the notion that great cities can be governed by universal suffrage is seriously shaken even among politicians, and that there is a disposition to seek deliverance from it in some way or other. The Washington Boss and Board of Works did for the Republicans in that city exactly what the New York Boss and his Board did for the Democrats in New York, namely, cover up a gigantic raid on property under a cloud of ballots cast by persons who did not own a cent, and to whom the waste and corruption were a huge frolic.—ED. NATION.]

MRS. BRASSEY'S BOOK.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Reviewing Mrs. Brassey's "Around the World in the Yacht *Sunbeam*," in your issue of July 4, you say: ". . . there are numerous illustrations; but Mrs. Brassey, who herself took photographs on the summit of Teneriffe and amid the glaciers of the Straits of Magellan, and bought freely at the various stations, might, we think, have done better with her material."

This does Mrs. Brassey an unintentional injustice; and as we appear

to have innocently given you occasion for the remark, it seems our duty to ask you to correct it. What use Mrs. Brassey made of her material for illustration you apparently judged from our edition, whereas it can fairly be judged only from the English edition, for which alone Mrs. Brassey is responsible. The English edition contains many more illustrations than ours, but (it seems only fair to add) is sold here for about three times as much.

Respectfully yours,

HENRY HOLT & Co.

NEW YORK, July 6, 1878.

CAUSE OF THE UNPOPULARITY OF THE ARMY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Some may be thinking that Congress has, in grudging support to the army, been unwise in economy. But some may think, too, that in this, and generally in legislation affecting the army, there has also been manifested a desire to lower it in efficiency and in the public estimation, which may have had more influence than mere parsimony. After the experiences of the last eighteen years, and just now, amid the resonance of eloquence on so many annual "Decoration Days" and soldierly reunions, it may seem strange to affirm this, as also to utter the opinion that the army is not popular in this country, whatever may be the regard shown for military men individually, and that the position of the officer and soldier of the United States does not receive here, among Americans, a degree of honorable appreciation equal to that which they themselves readily accord to officers and soldiers in the service of other nations.

It may well be that this should seem extraordinary to any foreign observer, but among ourselves it should excite no wonder. It is common to speak of the jealousy of citizens of free countries towards military power—jealousy inherited from the English struggles for civil liberty—as sufficient to account for this state of feeling, if it be admitted to exist. I find the explanation in the facts that, to the character of *soldier*, loyalty and fidelity to some ascertainable political sovereign is essential; that no military man can be respectable, as such, who has no political sovereign to whom he can be loyal and faithful, and that, with the conceptions as to fundamental political facts entertained *to-day* by an overwhelming majority of the people of this country, the so-called "national army" has no such sovereign, and therefore is an anomaly, having no status as army, and the officers and men have no possible claim to the position of soldiers in other countries, as men pledged to lay down life on call in defence of a sovereign whose actual possession of empire distinguishes the sword they wear from the weapon of an assassin.

Observe, I say with the conceptions as to fundamental political facts held *to-day* by an overwhelming majority of the people of this country—these being the only material thing, in the nature of the case. We have here as everywhere, in any country, to deal with a question of fact; not one of theory, doctrine, or of natural right. It is a question of *existing* fact; not a question of *past* fact; not a question of history, except as history may be accepted to prove what exists at the present moment. He, she, or they whom the inhabitants of a country *do to-day* regard as their sovereign *is* their sovereign. The historical question, Whom did they so regard yesterday? is material only as it may help to answer the former; and, as such, it generally seems to be all-sufficient in the enquiry. We know that on the question of the location of sovereign power, at the beginning of our independent existence and in the formation of the Constitution, opinions have always been pretty equally divided. But whatever may be historic truth as to the facts at those times, it is not of the slightest importance as compared with testimony on the question of present fact—Where do the inhabitants of this country *to-day* find the *majestatem legibus solutam*, their ultimate sovereign, that power-holder whose estimate of justice is their law in peace, and whose right of dominion may call them personally to hazard their lives and fortunes in war against any who would resist it?

There has been a war which has been, and is still sometimes, spoken of by the people of the Northern States, at least, as carried on to assert the sovereign authority of a nation, acting through its servants, agents, or officials, called "the Government," in the only way in which sovereignty can be asserted against dispute—that is, by arms; by physically putting down those who physically resist. There was combat and slaughter enough to serve for any hypothetical war. But fighting and killing cannot of themselves indicate anything beyond the bare fact of fighting and killing. Who were the parties on either hand, in the eyes and minds of those who have knowledge of it? If it was one sovereign against rebels, how can a writer in the leading northern review, January, 1878, say: "It was a conflict between the States before the tribunal

of last resort among nations—*ultima ratio regum*," and this be read by hundreds of intelligent men without the faintest sense of indignation or astonishment? Because it expresses the popular idea of the "War for the Union"; the very idea with which the South risked it at the first, but which the Administration, at least after Mr. Lincoln's death, accepted, and which was confirmed by the "reconstruction measures" in dealing with the States as conquered political entities, liable to be held to the consequences of defeat in war, because capable of waging war by their nature as States; that is, being States, having by their nature the right to call their citizens to bear arms in sustaining their dominion against all contestants.

Treason and traitors, rebellion and rebels were fluently talked of during the war. There was a decision of Judge Chase's, in the United States Circuit Court, that the acts of violence against the Government which had occurred in North Carolina corresponded in character with that "levying war" which in the Constitution had been defined as treason against the United States; but who the wicked individual was who had levied the war is judicially undetermined up to the present moment. The popular notion was that, while a State may be the party engaged in war with a public enemy, the citizens of that State may at the same time be chargeable with treason and rebellion against that same public enemy. The States were trying to accomplish separation by public war; but the wickedness of the motives made their citizens rebels and traitors as to the enemy with whom their sovereign was engaged. Here was a contradiction of ideas which could not be expected to continue; and as the idea of treason in individual citizens was allowed to fade gradually out of thought, so the antagonistic idea that the States were the parties in the war, States on either hand, Northern against Southern, Southern against Northern, has become formulated. The Decoration-Day speeches, the military reunions, the "fraternizations," the "era of good feeling" of this passing year have all been founded on this idea; while, as a natural consequence, in dwelling on the prowess of the State, its right to marshal its citizens in war has become more distinctly prominent in the thought and imagination of the citizen. Popular orators instinctively give out sympathetic utterance. Mr. Beecher, exalting military education before a recent reunion of prominent officers, mostly from West Point, praises the Southern States for their zealous support of their State military academies, and blames the Northern States for not following the example.

The popular army is not that army which, though indispensable in the Territories for fighting Indians and for dirty frontier work, cannot draw swords in the name and cause of a visible, tangible possessor of inherent supremacy, but only for a Government acting as convenient instrument for States each of which may, on occasion, sustain its own underived sovereignty by war. There are popular armies: the military of each State, not yet called, in terms, the army of that State, is that which draws to itself the hearts of the people.

J. C. H.

CALIBAN'S PROTOTYPE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The question whether Shakspeare's "Tempest" was a *Tendenz-drama* may be left to M. Renan and his forerunner Kreyssig, the latter of whom wrote:

"Caliban is the people. Like the people, he worships all that flatters his senses, . . . and when he chants his drinking-song, 'Ban, ban, Ca-Caliban, freedom, freedom,' he comprehends in it all the manifestoes of democracy, which demands no more than freedom to do evil. Such is the concealed sense of Shakspeare's creation, and the enigma which it belongs only to penetrative intellects to decipher."

I confess to a greater interest in the researches of those who endeavor to find the external sources of Shakspeare's plays—of plots, situations, and characters. Now, the "Tempest" has given rise to a considerable difference of opinion as to the date at which it was composed, one party holding with Malone that the play was suggested by Jourdan's narrative of the wreck of Sir Thomas Gates at Bermuda in 1609, and hence was composed in 1610-11; another agreeing with Hunter that a much earlier date should be assigned to it, and that the scene was laid in the island of Lampedusa, midway between Malta and the coast of Tunis. The fact is, I believe, that all the features of the play which have been viewed as connecting it with the Mediterranean are realized at Bermuda, while many others find their parallel in Bermuda alone. The geography of the "Winter's Tale" should warn us not to seek for perfect consistency here; and Ariel's commission to fetch dew from the "still-vex'd Bermoothes"—perhaps the greatest stumbling-block for the Bermuda theory—need

not outweigh any positive evidence that Bermuda was in Shakspeare's mind at the time the "Tempest" was conceived. Moreover, as regards the scene of the wreck of Sir Thomas Gates, commentators have failed to notice that in Shakspeare's time, according to Purchas in his "Pilgrimes," it was not universally allowed to have been the "true Bermudas," and the poet himself may have shared this scepticism.

So far as I am aware, nothing has yet been done to connect Caliban with Bermuda. On this subject Jourdan's tract throws no light whatever, and Mr. Hunter even supposed that Shakspeare formed Caliban after Dagon, the fish-idol of the Philistines. Caliban's name, indeed, we know to have been suggested by Montaigne, being simply the metathesis of Cannibal; just as Pigafetti's journal of the voyage of Magellan furnished the name of "Setebos." The brute himself, I apprehend, we owe to Job Hortop, who in 1591 published his "Rare Travayles," which was reprinted by Hakluyt in 1600, and read by all the world. Hortop states that, in the year 1570, while a prisoner on board a Spanish ship, he passed the Bermudas, when they "discovered a monster in the sea who showed himself three times vnto vs from the middle vpwards, in which parts hee was proportioned like a man of the complexion of a Mulato or tawny Indian." He adds that the commander had one of his clerks put it in writing, for the information of "the king and Nobles," and that for fifteen days after they had "wonderful foule weather"—thus associating the creature with a storm. Shakspeare describes him in one place as a fish, "legged like a man, and his fins like arms"; and to match Hortop's "tawny Indian," Stefano, on beholding Caliban, exclaims: "Do you put tricks upon's with savages and men of Ind, ha?" Supposing Shakspeare to have read Hortop, we can easily explain why the sea-monster should have seemed a useful "property" to him. In his time, stories of the New World everywhere fell upon eager ears. Speaking of England, Trinculo says: "Any strange beast there makes a man," and adds: "When they will not give a doitt to relieve a lame beggar, they will lay out ten to see a dead Indian."

Could Shakspeare also have been familiar with the rhymed narrative, "Nevves from Virginia" (1610), which calls the Isle of Devils the "Bermoothawes"?

B. F. DE COSTA.

NEW YORK, July 8.

Notes.

THE Reverend Canon Farrar, whose contribution to the discussion of the future life has been his most conspicuous recent work, has gathered into a single volume, entitled "Language and Languages" (New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.), his two earlier books, "Chapters on Language" and "Families of Speech." Both these have gone in their independent form through several editions, and are well known to students of language as pleasantly written works of considerable merit. Houghton, Osgood & Co. republish in this country the new edition of Haug's "Essays on the Sacred Language, Writings, and Religion of the Parsis," brought out by the author's most trusted pupil, Dr. West (he himself died in 1876). The work was first printed in India, and has not been easy to procure, though highly valued by students of the wonderfully interesting literature to which it relates. It is considerably extended, and provided with a full index.—The collected literary remains of Lord Strangford ("Original Letters and Papers upon Philological and kindred Subjects," London: Trübner & Co.) form one of the more striking books of the year, revealing in their author a genius of high order and acquirements most unusual. It is sad that such a man should have lived known to so few for what he really was, and should have gone down to the grave in the prime of life, leaving behind him no finished *opus* worthy of his abilities, but only specimens showing what he might have done. These lighter products of his pen are rich with wit and liveliness, and will chain the attention even of those to whom their subjects are less attractive.—We have received Vol. I., No. 1, of *Ross-Belford's Canadian Monthly* (Toronto), an illustrated magazine, edited by George Stewart, Jr., which succeeds the defunct *Belford's Monthly*. As the latter broke off in the midst of a serial, "Roxy," so the present magazine begins in the middle of one, "The Monks of Thelema"; but to secure the reader's attention for the fourteenth chapter a synopsis of the first thirteen is ingeniously prefixed.—The *Academy* announces that Friedrich Bodenstedt, the author of "Mirza Schaffy," is engaged upon a translation of Omar Khayyám. It will be interesting to compare it with Mr. Fitzgerald's.—Students of the law of evidence may find their profit in a treatise on "Der Beweis im Strafprocess," by Prof.

Dr. A. Geyer, which fills Part 4 of Holtzendorff's 'Handbuch des deutschen Strafprozessrechts' (Berlin: Carl Habel), and is apparently unfinished.—Part 4 of Koolman's 'Wörterbuch der Ostfriesischen Sprache' brings the work down to the word *ek*, *eke* (oak). Under *dogter*, *dochter*, doubt is cast on the derivation which makes the primitive meaning of *daughter* to have been the *milker*. Under *däfel*, *dävel*, there is a choice and copious collection of proverbs about his Satanic Majesty. Here is one of them: "Gifd man de däfel en finger, den gript hê glik na de hêde hand."—We regret to record the death of Mr. George S. Appleton, a principal member of the firm of D. Appleton & Co., in the fifty-seventh year of his age.

—To their yet incomplete series of science, literature, and history primers, issued in this country by Appleton & Co., and to the historical course of Mr. Freeman, here published by Henry Holt & Co., Macmillan & Co. have now added a series of hand-books on 'English Men of Letters,' edited by Mr. John Morley, and to bear the American imprint of Harper & Bros. The series seems to have been suggested by the success of the Messrs. Blackwood's 'Ancient and Foreign Classics for English Readers.' A long list of the volumes in preparation is announced. Mr. Morley will himself handle Swift, Mr. Froude takes Bunyan, and Professor Huxley is to give us Hume. Dickens will receive due consideration from the author of 'Tom Brown,' and Goldsmith from the author of the 'Princess of Thule.' Thackeray's son-in-law, Mr. Leslie Stephen, the author of 'Hours in a Library' and a 'History of English Thought in the Eighteenth Century,' has written the first volume—'Samuel Johnson.' To give an intelligent idea of the Great Bear of English literary history in less than two hundred short pages was no easy task, but Mr. Stephen has done it. The task was the more difficult as most of Johnson's literary baggage has been finally consigned to the literary lumber-room—a fact which Mr. Stephen makes clear enough, while he shows the qualities which once made Johnson mighty. The book—as a criticism merely—was worth writing even after Carlyle's essay, and it gives a far juster and a far gentler idea of Johnson and Boswell than Macaulay's trenchant paper. Nor is this fuller appreciation gained by any neglect of those asperities which gave point to Hood's joke about "Dr. Johnson's Contradictionary." Two of the six chapters are almost wholly filled with extracts—favorable and the reverse—from the Boswellian verbatim report. Apropos of Johnson's style, Mr. Stephen quotes Goldsmith's apt assertion that if Johnson had written fables he would have made the little fishes talk like whales, and makes a remark of his own somewhat similar in reference to the heavy attempts in the *Rambler* at the touch-and-go lightness of Steele or the airy grace of Addison. When Johnson "ventures upon such topics he flounders dreadfully, and rather reminds us of an artist who should attempt to paint miniatures with a mop." The second of the 'English Men of Letters' to be published will be Mr. R. H. Hutton's 'Scott,' and it is certainly curious to note that the first two authors treated in the series are the subjects already of two of the best biographies in our language. Moreover, close upon the appearance of Mr. Stephen's 'Johnson' we see announced 'Dr. Johnson: his Friends and his Critics,' by George Birkbeck Hill, D.C.L.

—The *American Architect*, discussing our elevated railways from its special point of view, and foreseeing the changes that must inevitably ensue in the use of buildings along their routes, makes two alternative suggestions. The lower story, being now in a great measure cut off from light and air by the overshadowing trestle-work, might take the place of the present basement, which it would readily surpass as a convenient and wholesome place for the reception and storage of goods. Then, says the *Architect*, either let the second story be set back (*i.e.*, cut out) the width of the sidewalk, making an arcade like the Rows in Chester, the third, fourth, and remaining stories overhanging; or let the entire façade above the first story be set back the proposed distance, so that the upper part of the building will seem to rest upon a terrace. In either case, the attractive shops would be found on the second stories, which, continuously connected by bridges over the streets with each other, and with the railway depots, would thus constitute an elevated promenade that could hardly fail to be popular as meeting the new conditions. Elevators might be used to save the fatiguing ascent of steps. The *Architect* is uncertain whether the arcade plan or the terrace plan would most delight the profession, as giving scope for its finest efforts; but there can be no question that the terrace plan would most dignify the avenues by increasing their width skywards, and be in every respect the most wholesome for residents or visitors. Moreover, if the present noisiness of the trains were not overcome, the reverberations in the galleries or rows would be

almost unendurable. On the other hand there are some obvious drawbacks, in our winter climate, to an open *trottoir* twenty feet above the street level.

—The scheme thus suggested is, of course, feasible only on condition of a general agreement among property-owners, at least for a block. There is at present no sufficient uniformity in the height of stories; and if it were sought to make the second story absolutely level with the track, the first story would be of varying heights (since the track grade is not constant), and the least height would still be much greater than is now profitable, or could be, unless subdivided for use as a basement. The track on Pearl Street, for example, sometimes cuts across and sometimes runs above the second story (of pretty old buildings, to be sure). Another consideration is that the streets most monopolized by the railways are not now, and are not likely to become, the resort of retail shoppers, unless the railways themselves create the custom. This, of course, is possible; and perhaps, as we have no Haussmann to order these hanging boulevards, and no municipal authority to set back the façades without compensation, it might be worth while for the companies to buy up a block of grumbling tenants and landlords, and convert it into terraces or arcades adjacent to some one of their depots. The example would soon be followed by private owners if it proved successful.

—The exact and full text of the report of the British Royal Commission on Copyright is now obtainable. We referred to the report briefly when a summary of its suggestions was telegraphed by cable over a month ago. We have already corrected the statement that it was unanimous. Sir Louis Mallet dissented from it in almost every significant point, and most of the members of the Committee disagreed with the majority in one or more minor points. But in the main conclusions, in all important points, there is practical unanimity. These important points for us are, as we said before, "the fixing of the duration of copyright for the life of the author and thirty years thereafter"—all his copyrights thus expiring at once at a date easy to verify; "the reservation to the novelist of the exclusive right to dramatize his own work; the putting of works of art and of dramatic and musical compositions on the same footing as books, and the according to all foreigners publishing books in British dominions the same rights as British subjects," on condition, however, that the book be first published in the British dominions. This condition is not difficult, and the result will be, if the suggestions of the report become law, that American authors and artists will have full copyright protection in the British Empire. This granting of protection to foreigners is the one recommendation likely to excite opposition, but that some revision of the English copyright laws is necessary is obvious from even a cursory study of the well-made digest of the present law which Sir James Stephen has appended to the report, telling just what the law is, citing cases, and embodying in amendments the recommendations of the Committee. As an instance of the very chaotic state in which the English law now is, it seems that a lecturer may reserve copyright in his address by giving notice before its delivery to two justices of the peace, and the penalty for infringement of this copyright is a forfeiture of every copy of the address, with "one penny for every sheet thereof found in his custody—half to the Queen and half to the informer," so that, as Mr. Stephen suggests, "a person who delivered a popular lecture and got it published in the newspapers, after having given notice to the two justices, might by good management seize the whole editions of all the London papers and get one penny apiece besides." None of the copyright acts seem well drawn; a section of one "is a miracle of intricacy and verbosity"; another is "inexpressibly puzzling, besides being very cumbersome." Sir James Stephen's digest and suggested amendments, on the other hand, may be called almost a miracle of clearness. It would be difficult for any layman to misunderstand it, and it will doubtless be an efficient weapon in the hands of those who desire a revision of the law. With the usual tendency of the English race to arrive at practical results with the least possible discussion of unnecessary and possibly irreconcilable theories, we have in the report no decision as to the nature of copyright itself—as to whether it is a natural right or merely statutory. (Sir James Stephen says that it is doubtful whether there is copyright by the common law or not.) Although the question is not directly passed on, the *obiter dicta* of a majority, at least, of the commissioners point to a general belief in the purely statutory origin of copyright. A decision on this preliminary point would greatly simplify the subject. If copyright is not a natural right, the reprinting, for instance, of American books in England, and of English books in America, is in no sense "piracy," and the word is absurd. On this sub-

ject we see no reason to retract our assent to the theory laid down in the pamphlet of M. de Folleville (noticed in *Nation*, No. 641), a pamphlet which seems not to have been known to any member of the commission. The French writer, taking a middle course, held that an author had a natural right to his MS., and that this right perished naturally when he published his work, i.e., "dedicated it to the public," in return for which gift the community creates for his benefit a monopoly in his own work for a specified time. Sir Louis Mallet desires to substitute for this monopoly which we give the author in his own work, under the name of copyright, a royalty of a fixed percentage on the retail prices at which any or all publishers may choose to issue the work; but this change is far too radical to have much chance of acceptance. The report deserves careful consideration by all interested in literary property, and although it leaves more than one point untouched, it is likely long to be an important document in all discussion upon the law of literature.

—The details received by post have added very little to the accounts transmitted by telegraph of the death of Januarius Arthur MacGahan, the special correspondent of the *Daily News* with the Russian forces in Turkey. Partly through his character, partly through his adventures, and partly through his connection with the last war from its very beginning, MacGahan had conquered for himself a peculiar position among correspondents. Born in Somerset, Ohio, about 1842—a townsman, therefore, of General Sheridan—after going to college and studying law, MacGahan found himself in 1870 at Brussels studying French and German, and Roman law. On the persuasion of a friend he consented to act as correspondent of the New York *Herald* during the Franco-Prussian War. His success was such as to cause him to remain with the *Herald*, and he served it well and faithfully during the Commune, in Rumania, Russia, and the Caucasus, in Geneva, in Holland, with the Russian expedition to Khiva, cruising on American war-vessels in anticipation of a war with Spain, in the camp of Don Carlos and among the mountains of the Basques, and on the *Pandora* during the arctic cruise of Sir Allan Young, many times in difficulty, many times in danger, but always escaping through his pluck, his audacity, and his unfailing good humor. At the outbreak of the Servian war in 1876, as the New York *Herald* desired no special correspondence at that time from the East, MacGahan obtained a leave of absence (his connection with the *Herald* was never actually severed), and accepted a position on the *Daily News*. He desired to join the Servians, with whom he sympathized, but, much to his regret, was sent to accompany the Turkish army. On his way to the front he stopped at Philippopolis for a day or two to wait for some necessary papers and permissions, and there saw and heard enough of the disordered state of the country to become deeply interested. He postponed his departure for the army, made a tour through Bulgaria, and wrote those vivid and truthful letters which had such an influence on public feeling in England, and, in a certain way, on all subsequent events in the East. Owing to the absence of postal facilities these letters were all written without the slightest idea of the effect that they were producing. After the Servian war was over, MacGahan returned to Bulgaria and gave the most of his time to assisting Lady Strangford in relieving and caring for the houseless victims of the massacres. After spending the winter in Constantinople and St. Petersburg, doing always excellent service by the correctness of his information and the justness of his views, MacGahan was sent to the Russian headquarters at Kishinef, and remained with them from the beginning to the very end of the war. His criticism was as unsparing as his appreciation was just, and he never forfeited the esteem in which he was held by the Russian commanders and diplomatists. The fatigues of the campaign seriously affected him; a fall from his horse injured his leg, and rheumatism and fever undermined his general health. The malaria of San Stefano, aggravated by the bad sanitary arrangements of the camp, brought on a severe form of typhus, of which he died at Constantinople on June 9, after less than a week's illness. Gen. Skobelev, whose reputation MacGahan had greatly helped to make, the members of the American and Russian Legations, and a deputation of Bulgarian boys from Robert College followed him as chief mourners to his grave in the Catholic cemetery of Ferikoi on the Bosphorus. The Bulgarians showed their sense of his services to their nation by celebrating a funeral mass in the cathedral at Philippopolis.

—Not to speak of his energy, tenacity, and courage, MacGahan, by his modesty, the breadth of his culture, his power of thought, and, more than all, by his sincerity, his honesty, and his discretion, stood far above the American type of correspondent. While his modesty, the sweetness and gentleness of his character, his self-sacrifice and devotion to his friends,

the nobility of his nature, and his universal sympathy with what was good or beautiful, added to his wit, his contagious good-humor, and the power of his conversation—though he was generally inclined to silence—might account for his many friends, for his being a favorite in society, and for the singular fascination which he exercised over women, it was chiefly due to his known and proved discretion, to the unfailing reliance that could be placed on him, that he was freely admitted to state secrets, and was at the same time the intimate of the Russian Foreign Office and of the British Embassy. MacGahan was far more than a newspaper correspondent. His ideals and aims were outside journalism. Far more than most literary men was he gifted with the literary sense. He was not, as is commonly supposed, a rapid writer; he would spend hours over a short telegram, and always changed and corrected and frequently rewrote his letters, in order, while strictly adhering to truth, to obtain the proper climax and effect. He wrote two books, both when pressed for time and unable to give the revision which he desired: "Campaigning on the Oxus," which is, with the possible exception of Palgrave's "Arabia," the best book of travel of modern times, and "Under the Northern Lights," a description of the cruise of the *Pandora*, which is, as he himself said, "a desperate attempt to make a book out of nothing." He had planned a book on the Carlist war, in which he hoped to show why the Basques supported absolutism to retain republican privileges, and a work on the late war and the Eastern question, which, with his knowledge of secret negotiations and of unpublished documents, would have been exceptionally valuable; and he had desired to enter the paths of pure literature with a more ambitious work. *Dis aliter visum.*

—M. Rameau is out again in the *Opinion Publique* with another long article in answer to our few lines of comment on his "Colonie Féodale." We had called attention to his curious statement that Massachusetts was first communistic and then feudal, to which he replied by citing authorities to show that communism once existed in Virginia. He now, in great triumph, cites Bancroft to show that it once existed in Plymouth. We beg to inform him that Plymouth and Massachusetts were two colonies wholly distinct, built on different principles, and forming two separate members of the fourfold confederacy of New England. The one was founded in 1620 and the other in 1630. Such communism as there was in Plymouth ceased years before Massachusetts began to exist. Massachusetts was no more communistic than she was feudal. M. Rameau proceeds to discuss at great length our remarks on his book, evading points at issue and misquoting both his own statements and ours; but we cannot give more space to him. As to the questions of feudal colonization, and the relative qualities of French and English colonists, we decline to discuss them, either now or hereafter, with M. Rameau. We have elsewhere given our views on these matters, and shall probably have occasion to do so more fully.

—The sale of a portion of the library of the late Ambroise Firmin-Didot, which occupied ten days of last month (June 6-15), was, all things considered, perhaps the most memorable of all book-auctions. The catalogue embraced 715 numbers and aggregated 855,000 francs. Yet the MSS., numbering 70, were less than a fifth part of M. Didot's entire collection; and the printed books reserved for a future sale may be expected to offer as splendid attractions as the lot just disposed of. Fourteen of the works enumerated in the admirable catalogue, edited by M. Pawlowski, were printed on vellum; nineteen were unique, so far as known; a large number bore the signatures or autographic notes of celebrities like Boileau, Bossuet, Condé, La Fontaine, Racine; and a still larger showed by their bindings that they had once belonged to royalty, its mistresses or ministers, from Francis I. to Louis Philippe. The longest purses in the world competed at this sale, with the result, however, of leaving the French amateurs in possession of most of the treasures which they coveted. Conspicuous among them were the Baron James Rothschild, who bid in person, and the Duc d'Aumale. We note a few of the more remarkable prizes: A poem, MS. (No. 40), "La Coche, ou le Débat d'amour," by Marguerite d'Angoulême, Queen of Navarre, of the XVIth century, on vellum, adorned with eleven curious miniatures, in each one of which the queen is represented, brought 20,100 fr.; it had cost M. Didot 8,220, and the Queen of Navarre, in 1541, for its manufacture some 300. Another MS. (No. 64), of the XVth century, "Chroniques de Normandie," also enriched with miniatures of unusual size and historic interest, brought 51,000 fr., the highest figure of the sale. No. 65, "Chroniques abrégées des Anciens Rois et Anciens Ducs de Bourgogne," XVth century, in which the text was subordinated to the miniatures, the latter occupying two-thirds of the quarto page, brought 20,100 fr.; M.

Didot had secured it in 1865 for 10,000, or more than its weight in gold. No. 66, "Le Trespas de l'hermine regrettée," an account of the funeral ceremonies of Anne de Bretagne, executed on vellum about 1515, with five full-page (4to) miniatures, brought 13,100 fr. It was formerly the property of the Chancellor d'Agueseau, and before him of the great Comte. In 1862 its price was 5,000 fr. No. 67, another account of the same "Funérailles," which in 1862 was valued at 3,000 fr., brought here 10,100. Coming now to the printed works, Martin Franc's "Lestris de la fortune," printed at Bruges about 1477, by Colard Mansion, of which but one other copy is known, and which cost the owner from whom M. Didot purchased it 7,000 fr., was knocked down to Baron Rothschild for 21,500. No. 578, "Clériadus et Meliadice," a folio, printed at Paris in 1495 on vellum, unique also in that no paper copy is known, and doubly precious as being adorned with 25 miniatures, brought 19,100 fr., whereas M. Didot paid but 10,000 for it in 1867. No. 582, "Olivier de Castille," a romance of chivalry, unique (Geneva, 1492?), fell to Baron Rothschild for 20,000 fr. No. 696, a vellum copy of the second edition of Monstrelet's *Chronicles*, three volumes in two, folio (Paris, about 1500), brought 30,500 fr. M. Didot bought this work in 1862 for 18,000 fr. of the father of the present purchaser, M. Techener. Lower than any of the foregoing prices was that which secured the Latin-French dictionary of Firmin Le Ver, perhaps the most valuable of all the MSS. in a philological point of view. This dictionary was executed on vellum, after twenty years of laborious compilation, in 1449. It contains a great many French words to be found in no other dictionary, and one-sixth of the Latin words are also wanting in other glossaries, not excepting Du Cange. It is now likely to be printed, as it ought to be, the Société pour l'impression d'Anciens Textes Français being the purchaser.

—The dramatic literature of Persia was almost wholly unknown in the West before the publication in 1845 of the essay written in French by A. Chodzko, who is a brother of the more celebrated Polish patriot and author, and himself the compiler of a Polish-English and English-Polish dictionary now in its eleventh edition. He edited in 1842 "Specimens of the Popular Poetry of Persia," printed for the Oriental translation fund of the Royal Asiatic Society. He is now connected with the College of France, and he has just contributed to the "Bibliothèque Orientale Elzévirienne" a little volume on the "Théâtre Persan," containing translations of five rather sorrowful sacred plays. M. Chodzko, in the preface, gives a general account of Persian dramatic literature, not very enticing. In the land of the Shah the stage is still very primitive. There are no regular companies or theatres; the performances are given for the most part in the open air or in the courts of inns—as in England just before Shakspeare's day. The actors are apparently amateurs. The expense of the performance is defrayed by wealthy men—as was generally the case also in Greece and Rome—but in Persia, besides personal popularity, the giving of a play confers religious benefits on the giver; it entitles him to something like the old pre-Lutheran indulgences of the Roman Church. The account M. Chodzko furnishes of performances in Persia at which he has been present is curious. The plays are all drawn from incidents in the life of the prophet, of his son-in-law Aly, and of his grandsons Hassan and Hussein. The translator terms them mysteries, to which they are, in fact, akin, but even less artistic in plot. The Persian play has no action and no climax; it is only an incident mournfully narrated, for as all the dramas relate to the martyrdom of Hassan and Hussein they are all sorrowful. M. Chodzko reports that there are a few ambulatory companies of jugglers and acrobats playing in rude farces full of practical jokes, and resembling seemingly a very low form of the Italian *commedia dell'arte*. But this sort of *temasha*, or farce, is but little esteemed in comparison with the religious *tazié* already referred to, and of these the five specimens in M. Chodzko's little volume scarcely give one a desire to know more.

—One of the last works of the late Spanish novelist, Fernan Caballero, was a collection of nursery rhymes and tales mostly from her own loved province of Andalusia. This collection has been recently published by Brockhaus in the well-known "Colección de Autores Españoles" (vol. xl.) under the title, "Cuentos, Oraciones, Adivinas y Refranes populares é infantiles recogidos por Fernan Caballero" (Leipzig, 1878). This interesting contribution to Spanish folk-lore contains fairy tales proper (*cuentos de encantamientos*), children's legends, nursery riddles and prayers, proverbs and maxims collected among the country people, popular Andalusian sayings, and, finally, riddles not peculiar to children. The value of the volume consists in these maxims and proverbs; the fairy tales are weak versions of stories known all over Europe. Among them,

for example, are the Grimm stories of "The Spider and the Flea" (*La Hormiguila*), "The Cat and the Mouse in Partnership" (*El Lobo Bobo*), "The Gold Children" (*Los Caballeros del Pez*), "The Singing Bone" (*El Lirio Azul*), "The Poor Man and the Rich Man" (*Los Descos*), "The Pack of Ragmuffins" (*Benibaire*), "Dr. Know-All" (*Juan Cigarron*), and "The Little Elves" (*El Duendecillo fraile*). The direct oriental element is less prominent than one would suppose; there are traces of it in "The Girl with the Three Husbands" (*La Niña de los tres Maridos*), and in "The Bird of Truth" (*El Pájaro de la Verdad*). The story of "Bella-Flor" is valuable as offering a Spanish variant of the famous story of "The Thankful Dead." The religious stories offer little that is valuable. Although the collection was not made in the interest of science, and is far from being what we could wish, we are, nevertheless, thankful for any addition to the slender stock of Spanish popular tales, and the author has increased it considerably by the present work and her "Cuentos y Poesías populares Andaluces" (Leipzig, 1861).

—Dr. Georg Martin Thomas, a student of well-known eminence in Venetian affairs, and who, we believe, is engaged upon a history of Venice, published last year a monograph, entitled *Commission des Doges Andreas Dandolo für die Insel Creta vom Jahre 1350*. The "Commission" is a document of thirty-seven quarto pages, and its historical value is discussed in a brief introduction, sketching the commercial and colonial system of Venice, in which Crete occupied a very important position. It was the meeting-point of the three great routes of Venetian commerce to the East—to Alexandria, to Beirut, and to Tana (on the Sea of Azof)—as well as the westerly one, to Morocco and England. Crete was made the seat of a feudal military colony, the organization and government of which are briefly described in the introduction, while their details are fully illustrated in the text.

—Prof. Carl Hegel, son of the philosopher, and one of the most distinguished scholars in the field of municipal history (his principal work is "Geschichte der italischen Städteverfassung") has issued separately the introduction to his edition of the City Chronicles of Cologne (published by the authority of the Munich Historical Commission) under the title "Verfassungsgeschichte von Cöln im Mittelalter." It makes a volume of 321 octavo pages. This is a work of a very useful order, illustrating concretely the complete process of municipal development in one of the most important of the German cities. Perhaps Cologne cannot be fairly taken as a typical city, inasmuch as its constitution was exceptionally aristocratic, and in many points—e. g., the powers of the *Schöffen* and of the *Burggraf*—varied from the prevailing type. Still its power, energy, and wealth placed it nearly at the head of the German cities, and the very strength of its oligarchy gave its party contests a peculiarly bitter and violent character. These contests—of the municipality with the bishop, of patrician families with one another, and of the oligarchy with the industrial classes—are fully and clearly described.

RECENT NOVELS.*

'THE Honorable Miss Ferrard' is a very fresh and interesting novel, safe to recommend to those who are picking up books for country or seaside reading. There is apt to be a sense of having been swindled when on opening one book out of a few the same stock characters are met *diavolant* through scenery both commonplace and unreal. Though an Irish novel, this book is not a *réchauffé* of any of Lever's stories; so far as we can see, the author has no pet theory or pet grievance round which the lines of her novel must be laid; but she sees keenly and depicts vividly the picturesque condition of Irish life and character, as well as the intricate incoherences and the passionate futility that seem to make a doomed race of the Irish in Ireland.

The story opens with the journey of an Englishman who intends to purchase an Irish estate, and whose driver in his gossiping familiarity gives the list of personages and a good deal of the *mise en scène*—thereby opening the story and conveying necessary information very cleverly. The Hon. Miss Ferrard—a peer's daughter—just "sweet sixteen," appears first to the reader as follows: "She wore a skirt of black wool, so coarse that it might be taken for bear-skin; a hideously-made tunic of cheap black material; no collar, no cuffs, no brooch—no attempt at decoration of any kind. Such was the attire of Lord Darraghmore's daughter." This ill-dressed maiden is nevertheless a beauty—with wonderful eyes, charming figure, and hair that hangs to her waist, and it is around her that the whole story turns. Her neighbors (friends she has

* 'The Honorable Miss Ferrard.' By the author of 'Hogan, M. P.' Leisure Hour Series. New York: Henry Holt & Co.

none), her lovers and their surroundings, her untoward circumstances, and the gradual dawning of character and womanliness in the midst of something like barbarism mixed with a shallow pseudo-civilization, are all well described as by one who knows them well and to whom they have ceased to be strange.

If the book is written, as is said, by a young lady, there is a most commendable absence of missyishness, and for us of the North it is very valuable to get so sympathetic and intelligent a sketch of what may be fairly called our governing classes. Taken altogether, 'The Hon. Miss Ferrard' is an original and clever book, and one can hardly read it without that stimulus to the sympathies which we take to be the justification of fiction.

'Margaret Chetwynd' is in entire contrast to 'The Hon. Miss Ferrard.' The bears in this book all "dance to the genteelst of tunes"; the characters move only on soft turf or softer carpet; they are all highly born or highly connected, and when the young people go wrong it is because their noble parents went on too many foreign embassies while the children were young. It is difficult for "Susan Morley" to provide herself with a villain, and here she can get no lower than the extravagant runaway son of valued tenants, and the catastrophe comes about from large checks, signed by the heroine, being found by the hero in what he thinks an unjustifiable place. Though all this has its comic side, the book is innocent and well-bred. The author does not attempt to deal with conditions of which she knows nothing, and finds nothing to envy in Miss Braddon's specialties. Instead of them she shows us her heroine living with her affectionate aunt a quiet life in a lovely country place, where the only excitement is provided by the clever, quarrelsome young clergyman, whose fantastic notion of his clerical duty furnishes one of the elements of the plot. Early in the story the aunt dies, and Margaret is thrown into the hands of Lord and Lady Brundholme, strangers to her, though her guardians, and her haps and mishaps during the year she spends in their family make up the story (somehow its persistent mildness hinders our calling it a novel). At Lord Brundholme's house she meets his eldest son, Hugh Faulkner. He begins his acquaintance by exposing her to an unnecessary alarm for the sake of seeing how she will behave; makes a criticising sort of love to her; finding that she has given a large sum of money to a shabby scamp, puts the worst construction upon her act, and treats her with insulting suspicion; leaves home apparently for the purpose of being brought back again by the uncle of a lady with whom he has abundantly flirted, and to whom he now offers himself. Margaret, who has gone to her own house, accidentally overhears the offer, and, being a good deal worn with bad treatment, falls ill and is high unto death. Lady Brundholme goes to take care of her; Lord Brundholme and Hugh promptly arrive, apparently to watch Margaret's decline. She, however, gets better, and as soon as she can move about her room Hugh is admitted, and, for reasons which do not appear, his charming conduct receives an inappropriate reward and Margaret is happy to marry him, which brings us to the natural end of the story.

The writer of 'The Cadet Button' congratulates himself on the untrodden ground of American military life which he has taken for his story, and, to a certain extent, he may rightfully do so. The "greeting" prefixed to the book indicates a feeling in behalf of the Indian which one is surprised to find so little worked out in the story. He is further provided with two heroes: an Indian half-breed (who is at the same time a Scottish chief, a graduate of West Point, and an unmitigated scoundrel) stands for one, and the other is General Custer, idealized under the name of Colonel St. Aure, and endowed with every gift and grace. Having thus a fresh field, a philanthropic motive, romantic circumstances, and personages taken from real life, we rather wonder that Mr. Whittaker has not made a better book. We get an opening scene of young ladies and cadets flirting at West Point, then find St. Aure with his command at a fort on the plains (which is naturally called Fort Marengo), where the colonel deports himself as follows, when Adjutant Peyton brings him the morning report: "Will you oblige me by signing it, Colonel?" St. Aure looked at him a moment in the same quizzical manner, and suddenly uttered a wild Indian yell, while he lifted his hand as if to clutch the other's clustering curls. Adjutant Peyton set his teeth firmly and his eyelids quivered, but he never started. He merely took up the pen without a smile, dipped it in the ink and handed it to St. Aure. The commandant made a last grimace, which

failed to move the gravity of his subordinate, and then took the pen. His whole manner changed as he did so. His thin, hollow-cheeked face, with its lofty forehead, sweeping blonde moustache, and cleft chin (*sic*), became set in official sternness, an effect increased by his bushy eyebrows. "Very good, sir," he said: "duty is duty." Whereupon he signed the report. Surely this is very like Mr. Rawjester's conduct in the Condensed Novel. Next we have a secret expedition in search of Indians. Four of the party come upon a correspondent of the *N. Y. Tabard*, masquerading as a Catholic priest, accompanied by two gentlemen known as Beautiful Bill and Colorado Charley, and determined to get into the Indian village on the Yellowstone, where the great council which will decide the movements of the year is to be held. Lieutenant Armstrong joins company with Mr. Meagher, and they penetrate to the very centre of affairs. They are imprisoned by the faithless MacDiarmid and given up for lost, but escape, of course, with the council reported verbatim for the *Tabard*. There is a great deal more—more expeditions, more treachery. There is a pompous and insolvent judge, an old Miss Lacy supposed to maintain the standard of antique gentility, the worldly-minded young lady, the humbler but superior cousin, who finally marries the officer who in the first chapter of the book gave her a "cadet button." There is no lack of incident in American life, and incident certainly abounds in modern American novels; if good literature is aimed at, something more is required. Not even 'Gil Blas' interests us solely by its incidents.

A book by Jules Verne is like a nutmeg or a dandelion—to name it is to describe it. The worst thing concerning his books is that they should have constant and delighted readers. One of Dickens's heroes asks "What passions must rage in the bosom of that man who could shy a music-stool at a fellow-creature?" and one might ask what sort of incoherent notions and crude imaginings must fill what a reader of Jules Verne is pleased to call his mind!

'Madame Gosselin' is a story of a Breton ship-building town, and gives an animated and vivacious description of the life lived there by a prosperous ship-builder and his daughter, by Madame Gosselin, her son George, and a recluse, M. Pleumeur, who, having taken a fancy to George, teaches him mathematics and other things helpful in his career, which is altogether prosperous. He becomes a partner of M. Mauroy and marries his daughter Berthe, a charming creature, full of affection and intelligence. So far all goes naturally, as it might in any other country than France, but by a very well constructed portion of the plot M. Pleumeur becomes suspected of hiding some secret. It now comes to light that Madame Gosselin, whose seclusion and religious observances have been so impressive, is the former mistress of M. Pleumeur; that George is his son; that M. Pleumeur, having been found by Capt. Gosselin in his wife's bed-room, is accused by her as a thief; and that he, offering no defence, has served his sentence at the galleys, and has since lived the life of a hermit, that he might be in George's neighborhood. All this falls like a thunderbolt on the happy young married people; the two criminals are brought face to face; the whole story is told. Madame Gosselin dumbly retires to a convent, and M. Pleumeur, by a sort of agreement, rows out to sea a certain distance and drowns himself. The description of this suicide is perhaps the most powerful passage in the book, and the most attractive character is undoubtedly Berthe, who sustains and invigorates her husband to "quit himself well" in all these terrible events. We must not forget to say that the publishers have been most fortunate in their translator. The style runs smoothly along without awkward idioms or forced constructions. As far as that goes, one might think one were reading an English book.

WOLOWSKI.*

UNDER the Restoration, a minister whose name remains the synonym of the extremest liberalism of the reign of Louis XVIII., Decazes, founded at the Conservatory of Arts and Sciences public gratuitous instruction in the application of science to the industrial arts. At a period when science was transforming and enriching industry he thought it wise to extend an elementary knowledge of it elsewhere than in colleges, and that in a city with a numerous and active population of workmen, artisans, and manufacturers it was of national interest to teach its

*Off on a Comet: A Journey through Planetary Space. A sequel to 'To the Sun,' From the French of Jules Verne. By Edward Roth. Philadelphia: Claxton, Remsen & Haffelinger.

*Madame Gosselin. By Louis Ulbach. (Collection of Foreign Authors, No. 8.) New York: D. Appleton & Co.

*La Vie et les Travaux de Wolowski. Par E. Levasseur, Membre de l'Institut, Conservatoire des Arts et Métiers, Cours d'Economie Politique et de Legislation Industrielle; Première Leçon, Cours de 1876-7. Paris, 1877.

*Margaret Chetwynd. By Susan Morley, author of 'Throstlethwaite,' 'Aileen Ferrers.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.

*The Cadet Button: A Novel of American Army Life. By Frederic Whittaker, author of 'Life of Gen. Geo. A. Custer,' etc. New York: Sheldon & Co.

multiform applications and to instruct the producers both in the physical laws that govern the material of their handiwork and in the economical laws that rule all labor. Thus to the museum and the small school that then constituted the Conservatory were added three courses of public lectures—one on mechanics, the second on chemistry, the third on industrial economy. Charles Dupin, Clément Desormes, and J. B. Say were the first teachers in these several chairs, and for fifty years this school has grown in numbers and usefulness. A chair of physics, first filled by Pouillet, and some lectures on agriculture, were begun in 1836. In 1838 the preparatory school was reorganized and the number of professorships was increased to ten, and one of these was assigned to industrial legislation, so that students should be instructed not only in applied science and industrial economy, but in the legislation which governs labor, the principles on which it rests, and the reforms that are needed. Such a subject was not only necessary for professional men of science and arts, but for the proper enlightenment of the legislators of the country. This chair was assigned to Wolowski, then twenty-nine years old, and his success as a teacher showed that he was well chosen.

Born in Warsaw in 1810, he grew up in the full faith in France that was bred of the firm hold of the Empire on Poland from 1806 to 1812; and at twelve years of age he was sent to the Collège Henri IV. in Paris, where among his school-fellows were the sons of the Duke of Orleans, afterwards Louis Philippe; at eighteen he returned to Poland and took his degree at the University of Warsaw. He carried with him the liberal ideas inspired by Guizot, Cousin, and Villemain, the leaders of free thought at the University of Paris, and he shared the enthusiasm that was engendered by the success of the Revolution of July, 1830, going through all the phases of the short-lived Polish outbreak—as soldier, statesman, prisoner, and exile; finding in France a home, and showing himself worthy of the new career opened to him there. His whole family finally joined him, and for some years they lived in great poverty; but he went resolutely to work, was admitted to the bar, and at twenty-four, with other young men of his own age, began his life-work—the publication of a review of legislation and jurisprudence, covering the history and philosophy of law, comparative legislation, discussion of important questions in civil, commercial, criminal, and administrative law, critical examination of plans of laws submitted to the legislature, the views of authors and new opinions of the courts, analyses of foreign works on public law and of the discussions of the Academy of Moral and Political Sciences. His associates were Troplong, Ch. Giraud, Faustin Hélie, Ortolan, Ed. Laboulaye, Dufour, Championnière, all in turn foremost men in their professions.

For eighteen years Wolowski edited and contributed largely to the forty-six volumes of his Review, making it the means of supplying the last truths of science to the philosophy and history of French law, and to the application of political economy to French civil and administrative institutions and laws. At the outset he and his associates did the clerical and mechanical work, and his young wife helped with her youth and hope to make their poverty light and easy to bear. For ten years Wolowski reported the debates of the French legislature, an ungrateful task, which required his constant presence at wearisome sessions and cost more trouble than it was worth, but it gained him life-long friends who appreciated his talent for better work. After the long crisis that followed the revolution of 1830 there was a fever of speculation which led to all sorts of frauds and deceptions, owing largely to the unsatisfactory state of the law in reference to corporations. Wolowski, both in his lectures and his writings, pointed out the faults of the existing system and the remedy, showing that industrial legislation rested for its true foundation on the principles of political economy. He attracted the notice and received the encouragement of the Minister of Finances, who created for him the professorship which he filled with such credit in the Conservatory of Arts, where he began in 1843 teaching that industrial legislation ought to be the practical interpretation and application of political economy, the science which explains the growth, distribution, and use of wealth, and supplies the true methods for ameliorating the condition of the working classes, giving liberty to trade, and securing present prosperity and future safety. Professor of Political Economy and Industrial Legislation, Wolowski taught the lessons of science and liberty, of the general mechanism of the growth of wealth and of the true doctrines of its distribution, which have so largely contributed to the great increase of the productive forces of France, indeed of the world at large, during the last three-fourths of the century. For thirty-two years he continued his instruction at the Conservatory, aiming always at some practical reform or some new institution, some prejudice to overthrow or some error to cor-

rect, and both in his lectures and in his books his earnestness of purpose, the sincerity of his conviction, the strength of his arguments, the wealth of his illustrations, the method of his proofs, were important far beyond any mere matter of style. In 1848 he fought against the economical errors of the day—the belief that the state could supply labor with wages, capital with a return, and put an end to poverty and misery, by stopping competition. He went to the workingmen in their meetings and gave them the real truths of economical legislation; in return they elected him a deputy by a large majority, and in the legislature he enforced the same lessons, and in company with Blanqui, Bastiat, Michel Chevalier, Léon Faucher, Louis Reybaud, strove to secure the triumph of common sense and the re-establishment of private rights and public liberty. The means which he advocated for the improvement of the working classes were voluntary associations and the largest liberty for industrial enterprises; popular lectures on political economy; wise legislation in the employment of children and the protection of apprentices; opposition to the legal limitation of the working-day to twelve hours, and assertion of the absolute right of every man to make his own terms.

Driven out of public political life by the Empire, Wolowski returned to it only in 1871, when he was again elected a deputy. But the interval of nineteen years was full of useful activity—teaching, writing, publishing, disseminating sound doctrines, sharing the labors of the Political Economy Society, of that of Agriculture, of the Institute, of the Statistical Society, of the Board of Trade, of successive exhibitions, travelling to study men and institutions, and endearing himself to the representatives of the great countries by his intimate knowledge of their leading interests. He translated Roscher's "Political Economy," and made his notes the principal monument of his own doctrines on the subject. He had hearty faith in the historic method of study for political economy as for the science of law. His aim was to work out an economic history, and he began with his history of Industrial Legislation before Colbert, followed by lectures on Henry the Fourth as an economist and on Colbert's administration; and he planned a history of Industrial Legislation in France, and another of the Commercial Relations of France and England; but these were never completed.

Four subjects occupied much of his attention—the "Crédit Foncier," or Land Bank; the question of the relative values of gold and silver; banks; commercial liberty; and these he developed with great industry. He was the creator and the first director of the French Crédit Foncier, established in 1852, after ten years of earnest advocacy of the plan, and gave way to another head of the institution more acceptable to the Imperial authorities, while he watched the increasing success of the institution that he had called into being. It has largely aided in the growth of the great cities, and for twenty years has secured capital for rural as well as urban enterprises, which, without such help, would have languished and perhaps died. Agricultural progress in France owes much of its success to the aid of the Crédit Foncier and to Wolowski's wise rules for its government. His views on gold and silver were very firm. He believed that there was not too much metal for circulation, and that to banish or even reduce to a secondary place either of the two elements would be to exaggerate the value of the other, and favor creditors at the expense of debtors; and that money is not the particular value of one or the other of the two precious metals, but the resultant of the combined value of both. He republished the treatise on the first invention of money written in the time of Charles the Fifth by Nicolas Oresme, and the treatise on money by Copernicus; and he urged his and their doctrines on every occasion without being discouraged by want of followers or by the legislation that disregarded his theories. Wolowski warmly sustained the monopoly of banking and of the issue of bills by the Bank of France as best for France, but he advocated absolute liberty for discount and other banks, holding that the emission of bank-notes was an act of public authority for which the Government was largely responsible, that the liberty of banking and the security of circulation were easily reconciled, and that true progress meant a well-developed credit based on a sound metallic reserve. The question of commercial liberty was the great one with French economists for more than twenty years past. France, since the Empire and the Restoration, has maintained a tariff for the protection of its great national industries, and Wolowski was among the leaders of those who wanted to change it in the interest of consumers. He sought to show that a system of simple and moderate tariff rates is not only easier and fairer, but better for foreign as well as domestic growth, and that the workingmen gain by the development of trade and manufactures under low tariffs. He sought to enforce his ideas in a tariff-union with Belgium in 1842, in an association for free-trade established in

1846, in his support of the Commercial Treaty with England in 1860, and in defence of it when it was attacked in 1868 and 1872.

But apart from this long career of public activity Wolowski was full of private works of charity and benevolence. He helped support a Polish school, he gave freely of time and money to the exiles of Alsace-Lorraine, he was busy in a great many public charities, and he was incessant in his private acts of kindly and generous assistance to individuals, seeking out among his students and other young men those who most needed his encouragement and his substantial help. His public life was crowned by his election in 1874 as a life senator, and the honor thus conferred was due to his firm, moderate, and conciliatory support of the Republic, and to the scientific knowledge, sound experience, and untiring industry with which he applied himself to his legislative duties, and to the solution of difficult problems of government. His life was saddened by the domestic sorrows that left an unalterable impression upon him, and the death of an only grandson quickened his death; for his strength, weakened by over-application, was unable to bear the strain upon his tender and affectionate heart. He died in his sixty-seventh year, leaving a long list of printed works to perpetuate his useful activity. In this memoir by Levasseur his colleagues of the Conservatory of Arts and Trades bear their testimony to the debt due him for his services at that institution, where he taught for over thirty years, alike from the large number of persons who have heard his lectures and from the general public, who have gained beyond any means of computation by the sound knowledge freely spread abroad through his varied and useful labors in their behalf. The long list of his published writings given by M. Levasseur serves to show how industriously Wolowski labored to disseminate his learning, and the career of the man is characteristic of the recognition given by the Government of France to diligent services in behalf of public instruction. The administrative unity of that country brings to the front all those who are engaged in studies that in any way affect public interests, and thus encouragement is given to private persons to contribute of their store of knowledge both to the enlightenment of their fellow-citizens and to the improvement of the laws under which national wealth and enterprise are likeliest to be developed, secured, and increased. The prosperity that marks France to-day in the midst of the hard times of other countries, and in strong contrast to the want of knowledge as to the cause of and lack of remedies for our own commercial and financial troubles, is largely due to the intelligent labors of men like Wolowski; and the tribute paid to his memory may well serve as an encouragement to our own economists, and to the Government and people who so carefully eschew their lessons.

A Trip up the Volga to the Fair of Nijni-Novgorod. By H. A. Munro-Butler-Johnstone, M.P. (Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.)—*The Russians of To-day.* By the author of 'The Member for Paris,' etc. (New York: Harper & Brothers; Franklin Square Library.)—The only way of criticising certain books is by telling who wrote them. Here it is doubly necessary. Mr. Butler-Johnstone is a well-known member of Parliament who some years ago went for his health to the Steppes of Samara, east of the Volga, to try the *kumys* cure. The *kumys* did him good; he was enchanted with Russia, and bought a large estate between Samara and Orenburg, where he intended to introduce irrigation and try scientific farming. Unforeseen difficulties and a knavish agent compelled him to relinquish his undertaking at a loss, and he went away disenchanted. The reaction was so great that he became a strong Turcophile, went to Turkey, and lived for a while in Stambul among the Turks in close relations and sympathy with Ali Suavi and the Young Turkey party, and during the Conference was thought to be the private and unofficial agent of Lord Beaconsfield. His enthusiasm for the Turks is so great as to verge on the ridiculous. He wrote a series of papers for the *Pall Mall Gazette*, in which he maintained the superiority of Turkish character and civilization over Western Europe, and ascribed the decadence of good manners and morals among us to the filthy practice of shaking hands. It is evident that Mr. Butler-Johnstone is very impressionable, and his writings must be viewed merely as records of momentary impressions. 'A Trip up the Volga' was written in the shape of letters to the *Daily News*, when the author was still satisfied with Russia—so satisfied, indeed, that he went out of his way to defend the Russian treatment of Poland. As a hasty traveller's impressions of the Volga and of the often-described Fair of Nizhni-Novgorod, the book is entertaining, and up to the level of ordinary newspaper correspondence. It gives us, however, no new views, and no new information. The curious reader will perhaps get one impression, that the fair of Nizhni-Novgorod is not worth visiting—which is the solemn and exact

truth, unless the traveller know the rest of Russia well and be greatly interested in Russian industry and commerce. As a spectacle it is nothing.

'The Russians of To-day' is a book of a different character. It is a squib—or rather a political pamphlet—written by a very clever man to serve the plans of the "Jingoes" and to excite hostility to Russia. It is in no sense of the word a genuine book. It is false throughout, and intended to be false. Provided the desired effect be produced, the author is unscrupulous as to the means he employs. He began his literary career, when an attaché of the British Embassy at Constantinople, by a very amusing lampoon on his chief. It was too well done to merit severe punishment, and his real abilities promoted him in time to be British Consul-General at Odessa, but after a few years he was turned out of the service for official misconduct and for great "irregularities" in his accounts. He revenged himself by ridiculing the Government in the *Queen's Messenger*, a paper he started in London, but the virulence of his attacks caused him to be horsewhipped by a certain noble lord, and finally compelled him to leave England with an indictment for perjury hanging over his head. The author's experience in Odessa is, of course, the basis of this book, which originally appeared in the columns of the *Pall Mall Gazette*. The whole book is amusing, but the reader who does not know Russia should make large deductions. The character sketches are excellent, but the Russians of the author's "to-day" are the Russians of fifteen and twenty years ago. The details are in general very incorrect. As a single instance, take the constant references to *statues* and *statuette-s* of the Virgin and the Saints, things which are allowed in no Russian church and in no Russian house. From an artistic point of view this book is far below the clever pictures of French society in 'The Member for Paris' or 'French Pictures in English Chalk,' or the excellent sketches of English officialdom in 'The Boudoir Cabal.'

Star-gazing, Past and Present. By J. Norman Lockyer, F.R.S. (London and New York: Macmillan & Co.)—That the title of a purely literary work should often give no clue whatever to its subject or contents we can readily understand, because in works designed for rational amusement the reader does not always want to know exactly what he is to be treated to. Choosing the title of a scientific book on this principle strikes us as a new idea, and as very suggestive of the extent to which the popularization of science is now being carried, since it implies that readers of a scientific book care as little for its subject-matter as they do for the details of a new poem. Of course, every one knows it to be impossible to write a large volume on star-gazing, and will not be surprised to hear that Mr. Lockyer's book is really a treatise on the history and construction of astronomical instruments. It has the ordinary merits and demerits, the latter rather of a negative character, of our popular scientific literature. The story is told in the pleasing, diffuse, and occasionally loose style of the lecture-room, being, in fact, expanded from shorthand notes of a course of lectures, and shows on every page the tone of a very busy man, who could never stop to think over a sentence, nor to view his subject from the standpoint of philosophic leisure. No expressions of doubt are allowed to shake the confidence of the reader. To all appearances, the author is just as sure of the way in which Hipparchus made his observations as of the way in which he himself handles his own spectroscope. All the "hard" parts of his subject are carefully avoided, so that the unscientific reader need not fear meeting with anything he cannot understand. At the same time the book contains a vast amount of carefully-collected information on the subject treated, a great deal of which cannot be found in any other work readily accessible to ordinary readers.

Visions: A Study of False Sight (Pseudopia). By Edward H. Clarke, M.D. With an Introduction and Memorial Sketch, by Oliver Wendell Holmes, M.D. (Boston: Houghton, Osgood & Co. 1878. Pp. xxii., 215.)—This is a book of unusual interest and value. It contains a clear and thorough physiological analysis of normal vision, in the course of which the five sets of organs which constitute the mechanism of human sight, and the special functions of each, are vividly described. It is shown that sight is internal or intracranial, a function of the brain, not of the eye, and that this internal seeing, though usually and normally produced by stimuli from without, may also be excited from within, by changes in the substance or circulation of the brain, producing a visual impression or image without any stimulus from the eye. This explanation of the phenomena of normal vision is necessary as a basis for a just interpretation of those of false sight. The conclusion reached is that in-

ternal influences may and sometimes do produce in the organs of vision the conditions and movements which accompany and constitute normal sight—that is, the person really sees, but sees what has no present objective existence or relation to the eye. Such abnormal seeing constitutes a vision. A number of interesting cases of vision-seeing are given and explained. Some of them are very remarkable, involving delusions of both sight and hearing; and fortunately the phenomena were observed and reported by persons of trained and discriminating faculties. In all these instances the physiological solution appears entirely adequate. Excited or abnormal conditions of the brain, working in conjunction with the effects of habit and association, reproduce and combine, in waking as well as sleeping hours, impressions formerly made upon the organs of sight, and registered or deposited in the substance of the brain. The wonder-working power is intracranial, but it has all the impressions of experience for its materials.

The book would be of great use if it could be widely read by those who still retain the methods of thought of uncivilized man, and it deserves an important place among the books needed for our new national education; an indispensable element of this education being the instruction of people in scientific methods of thought and investigation. An important factor in our national thought and life is the thorough belief on the part of millions of our countrymen of the objective reality of what is seen and heard in visions, fancies, and ecstasies, and in the trustworthiness of revelations thus obtained from "the spirit-world." Visions become less common as scientific education advances, because such predisposing causes as faith, enthusiasm, and terror are diminished or removed. It is probable that all visions may rightly be explained on physiological grounds; but if it could be established that the appearance of a friend in a vision and his death at a distance are often really synchronous, this would introduce an element for which our analysis is as yet insufficient. Probably this cannot be established, but on this point we cannot yet speak with certainty. There appears to be no reason for regarding as exceptional the three cases which the author describes as containing elements which were, perhaps, not wholly subjective. The mere possibility, in the entire absence of evidence, that these persons may have "caught a glimpse of the glory beyond" has no scientific value. "There was no revealing sign" (p. 278). On pp. 302 and 312 it is said that "in the future life there can be no such thing as space. A child dies in Yokohama, and the instant the soul leaps from the body it can talk to its earthly parent in Boston, as if the Pacific and the Rocky Mountains and the prairies did not intervene. The future life is not conditioned by time or space." All this may be true, but if we are to use language with any strict regard for its meaning we are obliged to say that there is absolutely no knowledge on the subject. We may believe there is a future life, may have trust and faith in regard to it, but men in this world have no knowledge of any other life than the present. The desire to know what lies beyond death is natural to man in the earlier stages of his development, but all that he has wrought or gained until now has been achieved without any knowledge of a future existence.

The book has a portrait of the author. Dr. Clarke was a man of rare elevation of character, he was eminent in his profession, and his 'Sex in Education' is one of the best books of our time.

The Chronicle of the St. Lawrence. By J. M. Le Moine. (Montreal: Dawson Bros.; Rouse's Point, N. Y.: John W. Lovell. 1878.)—Mr. Le Moine is well known in Canada and out of it as the author of many works, some historical, some relating to natural history, and some to angling. In his four volumes called 'Maple Leaves' he gives a collection of disconnected but exceedingly interesting sketches of Canadian history, founded on extensive research and written in the easy and entertaining style which always characterizes him. We also have from him two works on Canadian ornithology, 'L'Album Canadien,' 'Notes Historiques sur les Rues de Quebec,' 'The Tourist's Note-Book,' 'Quebec: Past and Present,' 'Les Pêcheries du Canada,' and various other works in French and English. He writes in either language with equal facility. The present volume is thoroughly characteristic of his style and mode of treatment. It is divided into two parts; the first a sort of itinerary of a voyage from Quebec to the Maritime Provinces, and also of the famous "round trip" to the Saguenay and back. The second part is a series of descriptive and historical sketches of the chief localities of the lower St. Lawrence. The book contains a prodigious amount of information, partly concerning the past and partly the present, sometimes drawn from study and sometimes from observation. The style is off-hand, rapid, and now and then careless; but as the volume is meant as much for the deck of a steamboat as

for the study-table, this can hardly be reckoned a serious blemish. What it most needs is an index of localities. With this addition, it would be the pleasantest and most useful companion for the tourist that it is possible to conceive; without it, it is a treasury of curious knowledge rather perplexing from its abundance and variety. Everything is here—history, legend, anecdote, the fanciful and the practical; and nothing is wanting but the means of finding them without trouble—that *sine qua non* of the tourist.

Unjust Laws which Govern Women. Probate Confiscation. By Mrs. J. W. Stow, author and lecturer. Third edition. Revised and enlarged. (Published and sold by the author. 1878.)—According to the story told in this volume, Mrs. Stow is the victim of the bad laws of California governing the distribution of the estates of deceased persons, and the worse administration of them prevailing in the probate courts of that State. The tale of her grievances is so poorly set forth that it is difficult to make out the precise nature of the persecutions of which she complains, and the tone of her book is not one to convince the reader without reference to facts. Indeed, we fear it might be made a more effective weapon by her enemies than her friends. Mrs. Stow feels that women are an oppressed class; it is generally admitted that they form a physically weak class. Now, the only way in which any such class can possibly redress its wrongs, if it really has wrongs to redress, is by the use of arguments supported by clear and irrefutable facts, and resolute self-restraint from all violence and passion. An admirable illustration of the true way to deal with such questions as the property-rights of married women is afforded by the petition to the Massachusetts Legislature to which Mrs. Stow calls attention, in which a number of the best-known men and women in that State request the Legislature in calm but strong language to pass a law making widows executors of their husbands' wills, jointly with the other executors named, whenever they have any interest in the estate. The reasons for this petition are stated by the petitioners with great force and clearness, and the document presents a striking contrast to the windy and turgid pages of Mrs. Stow.

As far as we can make out, her main idea of reform is that the property of the husband at the time of his death represents the joint accumulations of the partnership formed by the husband and wife, and ought to belong to the widow as the surviving partner, without any process of administration in the Probate or Surrogate's Court—a process which she maintains always leads to extortion, and not unfrequently to confiscation. We are willing enough to believe evil with regard to the administration of justice in these courts, but it is obvious that the author here confuses two very distinct questions—that of abuses produced by favoritism and corruption, and that of the condition of the law itself. Of course, if a wife succeeded to her husband's property without administration, there would be hardly any opportunity for "probate confiscation"; but if the law is good enough as it stands, it would be rather an heroic cure to alter it for the mere sake of getting ride of the abuses which have grown up in its execution. Many people, also, would question Mrs. Stow's general statement that the property of husband and wife consists of their joint accumulations. Among well-to-do people the wife does no work except such as is involved in housekeeping and in bringing up her children, and it would be a great stretch of language to call this her share in a joint accumulation of property. It is incapable of proof that he would not have accumulated just as large an estate had he remained single. Besides this, there are the children to be considered. Without the protection that the court gives them, children would have no means of asserting their interest in their father's property, which is certainly as great as their mother's. The whole subject is surrounded with difficulties which only a patient and dispassionate investigation of the subject can overcome. With regard to probate abuses, which probably flourish in many other States besides New York, we trust Mrs. Stow's book may attract attention to them, but we fear that the extravagance of its invective and assertion will be apt to do the cause she has at heart more harm than good.

Bernard Délicieux et l'Inquisition Albigeoise (1200-1320). Par B. Hauréau, Membre de l'Institut. (Paris: Hachette et Cie; New York: F. W. Christern. 12mo, pp. 217.)—We have here an interesting episode of mediæval history, related in a graphic style, and with an earnestness rising at times to eloquence. Bernard Délicieux was a Franciscan friar of Carcassonne, in the time when the Franciscan order represented the liberal and reformatory element of the church. He possessed a fiery eloquence and thorough earnestness and devotion, spending his life in efforts to resist the inquisition in Carcassonne and Albi, and ending his life in

the dungeon of the Holy Office, a martyr to the cause. The events of twenty years, here narrated, brought him in contact more than once with King Philip the Fair, as well as with King James of Majorca, and Popes Clement V. and John XXII. Of all these personages, and many others of less note, M. Haumau has succeeded in giving a vivid impression.

The persecutions here described in Carcassonne and Albi were directed against the remnants of the Albigensian sect, which had been crushed so relentlessly a century earlier. Bernard, as well as the leading citizens of these towns who were leagued with him, denied all taint of heresy, and charged against the Dominican inquisitors that their chief object was the wealth of their victims, and that their work was done not only dishonestly, but with appalling cruelty and vindictiveness. The book makes known to us a character, it would seem, of genuine nobleness, and a heroic career, ending in failure. The Inquisition has been made so familiar as an institution of modern times that we are accustomed to regard it as having grown out of the separation of the communions in the sixteenth century, and to associate it with the Roman Church, which is a rival of the Protestant, rather than with that mediæval church which was really catholic, as embracing all western Christendom in its fold. A narrative like this before us shows that the policy of the Inquisition was not an outgrowth of schism, but of ecclesiastical power resting upon unity of faith. Another thing is brought out very strikingly—the powerlessness of the royal authority against the ecclesiastical, within the sphere of the latter. Philip the Fair was a great king, and did much to humble the ecclesiasti-

cal power; and yet within his own realm of France he was not king as regarded certain offences and certain classes of persons. The Pope alone had the power to control the excesses of the officers of the Inquisition.

We recommend this little volume, which it is hardly too strong to say is as interesting as a novel, to whoever would obtain a vivid picture of the religious life of this period.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK		Publishers—Prices.
<i>Authors—Titles.</i>		
Beal (Rev. S.), Texts from the Buddhist Canon (Channopada)		Houghton, Osgood & Co. \$2.50
Bergsle (W.), Pillone; a Tale		Lockwood, Brooks & Co. 1.00
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Howe (J. B.), Political Economy of Great Britain, the United States, and France		Houghton, Osgood & Co. 1.50
Monetary and Industrial Fallacies		
Juncker (E.), Marguerite; or, Life Problems; a Tale		J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1.50
Littell's Living Age, April-June, 1878		(Littell & Co.)
Macquoid (Katharine S.), The Fisherman of Auzer; a Tale, swd.		D. Appleton & Co. 25
Martin (Mrs. C. B.), Mt. Desert, Maine, 17th ed., 18th ed.		Loring, Shepard & Harmon
Michael Angelo		Houghton, Osgood & Co. 2.00
Millar (J. R.), Elements of Descriptive Geometry		Macmillan & Co. 2.00
Molesworth (Mrs.), Hathercourt		Henry Holt & Co. 1.00
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Prescott (G. B.), The Speaking Telephone, Talking Phonograph, etc.		" " 1.00
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Rushbrooke (W. G.), First Greek Reader		Sidney S. Rider
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